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PUBLISHED FORTNIGHTLY

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1918

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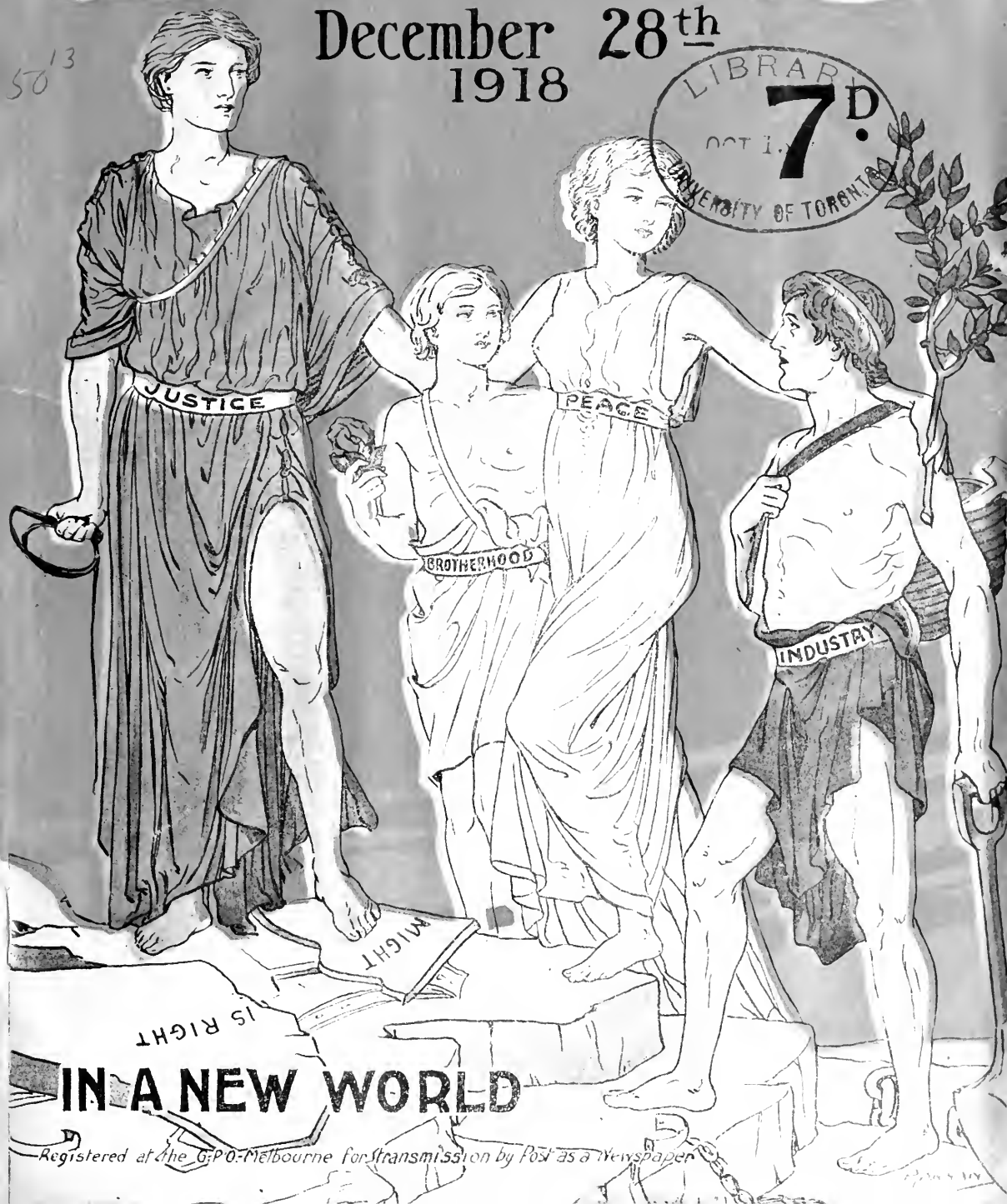

IN A NEW WORLD

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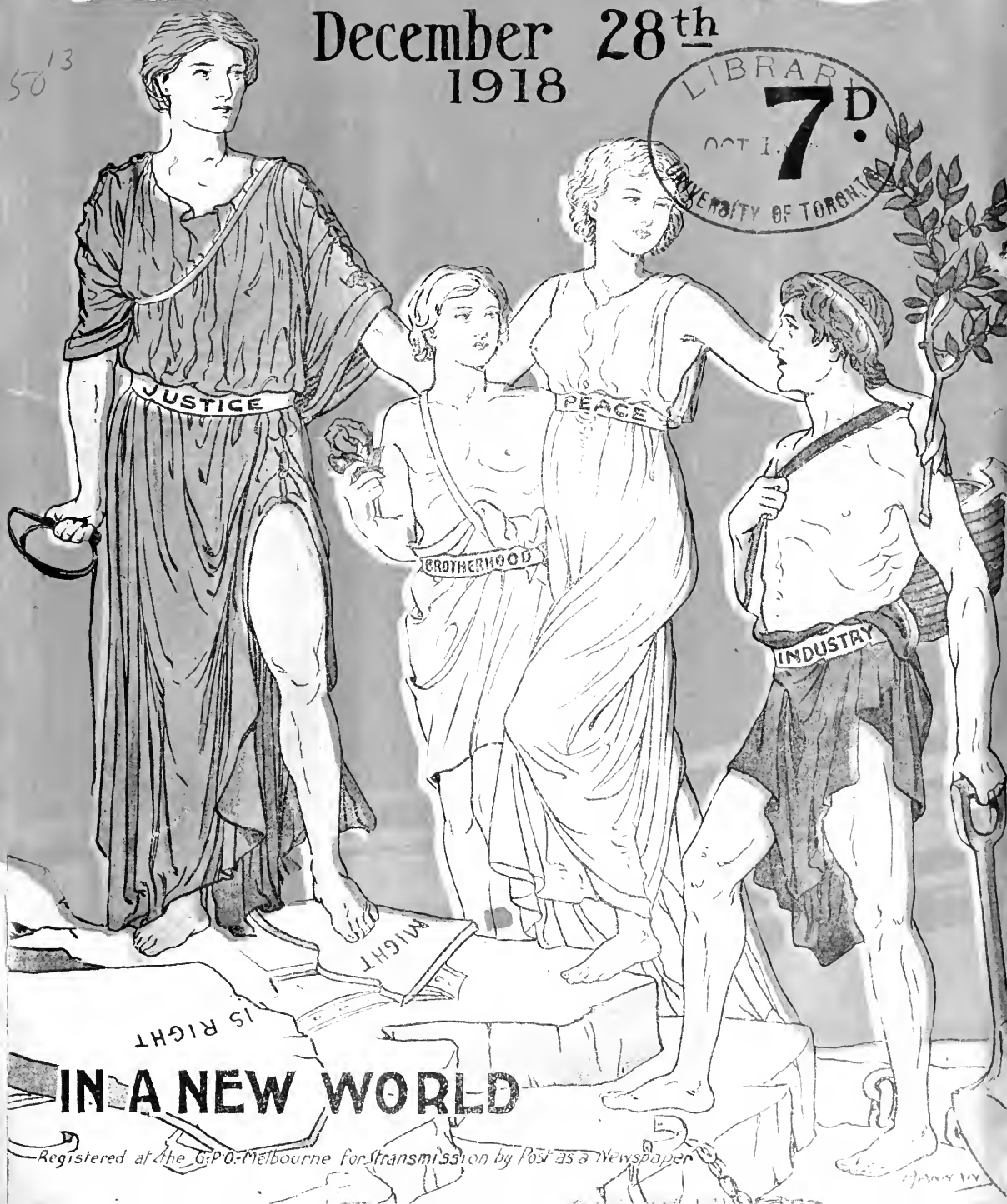

IN A NEW WORLD

Registered at the G.P.O. Melbourne for transmission by Post as a Newspaper

If YOU Are Afflicted With

CATARRH

Does your nose feel stuffed up?
Does it discharge or crusts form?
Does mucous drop into your throat?
Have you noises in the head?
Is your hearing failing?
Do you catch cold easily?
Is your breath offensive?
Do you cough up phlegm?
Is your throat sore?
Is there a tickling in your throat?
Is your memory poor?
Do you get tired quickly?

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YOU Can Try "CATARRH REDEEMER" for 14 Days AT OUR RISK

We have no hesitation in inviting you to use "CATARRH REDEEMER" for 14 Days AT OUR RISK, to prove beyond doubt or dispute its value as an effective expellant of Nasal Catarrh, Hay Fever, Bronchial Troubles, Head Noises and Kindred Affections of the Air Passages.

The beneficial results of "CATARRH REDEEMER" are IMMEDIATE and LASTING. It conquers the CAUSE of Catarrh, reduces nasal swelling, strengthens the throat, cleanses the nostrils of mucous, heals and soothes the inflamed membranes, checks excessive discharges, lessens head noises and speedily relieves head colds, hay fever, and all catarrhal tendencies.

YOU are asked to judge "CATARRH REDEEMER," not on what we or others may say of it, but on the efficacy of its use on YOUR case of Catarrh; on the strength of its value to YOU after a practical test of 14 days in your own home at OUR risk entirely. Get the FULL PROOF and FACTS about this GENUINE NEW REMEDY AT ONCE. BE SURE TO FILL IN YOUR NAME AND ADDRESS AND POST THE COUPON TO US TO-DAY. DO IT NOW!

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77 Castlereagh St. (nr. King St.), SYDNEY

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77 Castlereagh St, near King St., SYDNEY.

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Brown, W. J.
Boyce, A.
Batten, J. P.
Coates, D. J.
Clark, B. M.
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Cooper, G. E.
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Chalk, A. O.
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Davey, C. W.
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Head, R.
Hayes, W.
Hobday, A. K.
Johnson, S. E.
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Hemingway & Robertson

Professional Accountants and Coaches

S.R. 58 **COLLINS HOUSE, COLLINS STREET, MELBOURNE**

Returned Soldiers

What are You Going to Do Next ?

If we leave out those whose position is such that they do not need to work for a living, we can divide Returned Soldiers roughly into three classes:—

Class 1.—The fortunate ones whose experiences have not unfitted them for the work they followed previously to enlisting and who can go back to their old positions or similar ones.

Class 2.—Those whose money has accumulated and who have determined to use this money and their leisure in preparing themselves for better work and perhaps entirely different kind of work in the future from that they have done in the past.

Class 3.—Those whose experience has been such that they are permanently unfitted from following the trade by which they lived before enlisting.

The Pelman School of Mind and Memory Training has something valuable and helpful to offer to these men.

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They are graded and progressive, are intensely interesting from start to finish, and they are extremely effective.

They train the natural memory which every man possesses, they cure mind wandering, and cultivate the quality of concentration, they show the pupil how to realise his ambition, they create quickness of perception, strengthen will power, help a man to decide quickly and rightly; they make the pupil efficient and make him fit and ready to undertake new work or better work, they increase his self-confidence.

We have referred to three classes of returned soldiers. Knowing in which class you are, please read the following carefully:—

Class 1.—After months of active service and severe discipline of the body, another discipline is needed—that of the mind and will. After the wandering life—more or less irresponsible—you find it difficult to settle down, to give close application to your work, to concentrate your attention on necessary details. Your mind wants discipline. If you can only create the right mental attitude, then you are a far and away better man than you were when you went away.

The Pelman System will help you to find this attitude.

Class 2.—To put it mildly, the soldier who now has a lump sum of money and does not use some of that money, and the time between his welcome home, and his discharge, in preparing himself to do and to be something better than he was before he enlisted, is missing his biggest opportunity.

You are older now than you were then, and you have had a wealth of experience which should give you a big start in any new venture. Somebody else prepared you for the big events in which you have taken part. Prepare yourself now for the campaign which will last as long as you live, and determine to go into it a bigger and better man.

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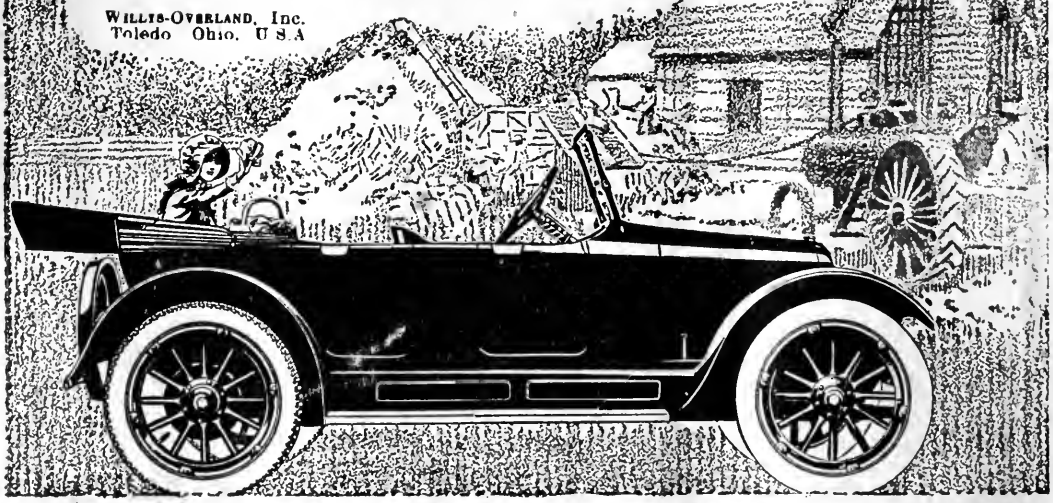

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Please help them in these times of high food prices.

6,544 Children admitted since War broke out.

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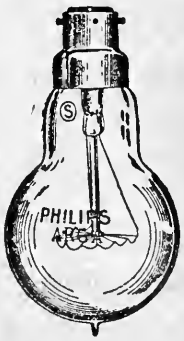

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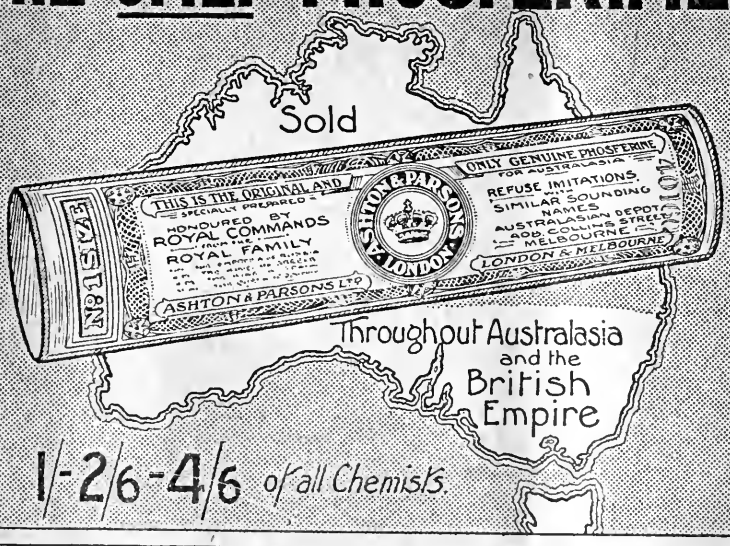

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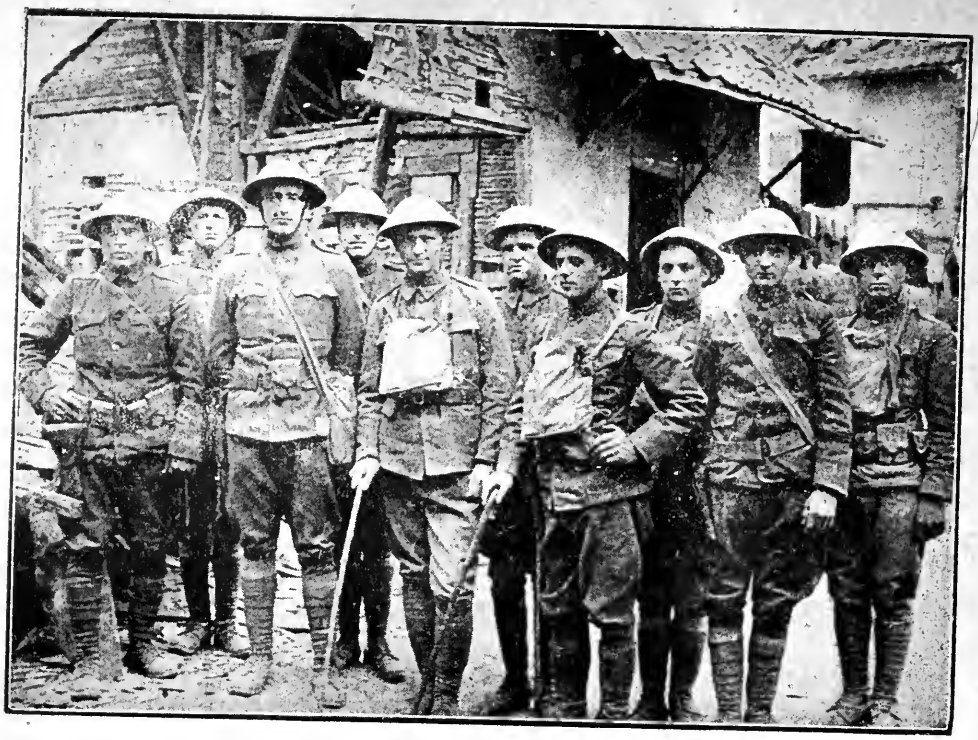
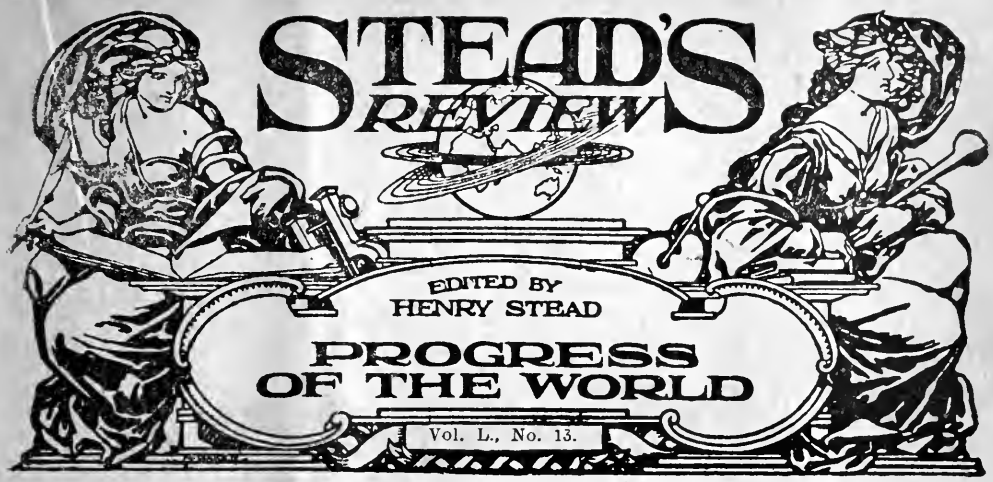
Marshal Foch immediately after he had been presented with his baton by President Poincare.



The type of men America sent to help the Allies.

The late Tsar's four daughters, said to have been murdered by the Bolsheviki.



DECEMBER 19, 1918.

Fears of Differences.

There is undoubtedly a feeling abroad that the ideas of the United States concerning the final Peace settlement—as expressed by President Wilson—and those of Great Britain and Australia are not quite the same, and consequently a somewhat impatient attitude is being adopted in some quarters towards the President. The magnificent reception he has been accorded in France, and the speeches which have been made by him and by the French President should go far to dissipate the fear that there will be any divergence of view shown when Peace terms come to be discussed. The Americans have all along asserted that they did not come into the war merely to help defeat Germany. That was a necessary means to an end, and the end was to bring about such a settlement that any future war should be made almost impossible. This attitude the President has consistently emphasised. Speaking in reply to M. Poincaré at a welcoming luncheon in Paris, he said: "From the first the thought of the people of the United States turned toward something more than the mere winning of the war. It turned to the establishment of the eternal principles of right and justice. It realised that merely to win the war was not enough; that it must be won in such a way, and the questions raised by it settled in such a way, as to ensure the future Peace of the world, and lay the foundation for the freedom and happiness of its many peoples and nations."

Not for Creed or Revenge.

It was with this end in view that the President—speaking, as he says, the thought of the American people—set out the famous Fourteen Articles which, with only one reservation, have been definitely accepted by the Allies as the foundation on which a permanent Peace is to be built. The President has not hesitated to point out again and again that to secure the permanent Peace of the world it will be necessary for all the Powers concerned to be prepared to make sacrifices, and we have Mr. Lloyd George's hearty endorsement of the American position when he said: "We must not behave like small men, revengefully trampling down a fallen foe. Stern justice must be done, but beyond that, let us behave in such a way that the enemy will feel we have been fighting for high ideals and not for mere greed or revenge." Admittedly the temptation to trample on a fallen foe and demand huge indemnities,

the complete surrender of territory, of ships, of trade, insist upon such conditions as will reduce the enemy nation permanently to the rank of a third-rate Power, is very strong, so strong, indeed, that many people find it impossible to resist. Fortunately the leaders of the Allies and of the United States fully realise that if we are to have future Peace and a contented group of nations of Europe, we must behave in such a way that the world must see that we have not fought merely for greed or revenge. I am quite convinced that it is only those who have surrendered to the temption above mentioned who are inclined to resent what they term President Wilson's interference between victors and vanquished. There is no such feeling in France or in England, as is demonstrated by the magnificent reception which has been accorded to the head of the great American nation.

American Co-operation Welcome.

It is surprising and yet true that hosts of people actually believe that American help was not needed to tip the balance of victory in favour of the Allies. Those who imagine that even if America had not thrown herself on our side we would still have conquered the Central Powers, can only be fools or blind. The statesmen of the *Entente* have no illusions on the subject whatever, and frankly admit that had America not come to the rescue with her ships, her food supplies and her men, things would have been in a very parlous state indeed. Just as the men who know give generous credit to the Americans for making victory possible, so do they also most cordially welcome American co-operation in settling the questions raised by the war in such a way as to ensure the future Peace of the world. Only those who fail to realise the fact that had it not been for American help the war would not have been won, would dare express any misgivings concerning the dominant position the President must necessarily have in all discussions about the Peace settlement. We always come back to the Fourteen Articles which have been accepted by all parties. They are quite clear, and must in the end be carried out, for they embody the high ideals for which we have fought. Individual Governments may put forward special claims and particular proposals, but these must necessarily be adjudicated upon in the manner set out in the Articles.

The Fate of the Colonies.

Take the question of the enemy colonies, for instance. The British Government, despite the definite statements of various Ministers, has not committed itself in the matter. All that it is committed to do, all, indeed, that it could do at this stage, is to urge upon the Peace Conference that these should be incorporated in the British Empire. If the statesmen there assembled consider that their annexation by Great Britain is consistent with "a free, open-minded and absolutely impartial adjustment of all colonial claims, based upon a strict observance of the principle that in determining all such questions of sovereignty, the interests of the populations concerned must have equal weight with the equitable claims of the Government whose title is to be determined," then they will be incorporated into the Empire. If, on the other hand, they do not consider this consistent with the terms of Article 5, they will make other arrangements. We may be quite sure, whatever happens, though, that these colonies will never be allowed to threaten the future Peace of the world. The Americans, through their President, have insisted that in the final settlement there must be impartial justice meted out, an impartial justice which "must involve no discrimination between those to whom we wish to be just and those to whom we do not wish to be just. It must be a justice that plays no favourites and knows no standard but the equal rights of the several peoples concerned," but they have also insisted that the settlement must be on lines which secure permanent Peace to the world. Whilst there is a naturally strong desire to retain territory our troops have occupied, as Lloyd George says, when we fought we were inspired not by greed but by high ideals, and if judged on the basis of Article 5, our claim to keep the colonies was not upheld at the Conference, we would have no reason to grumble provided all menace from these colonies disappeared for ever.

The Freedom of the Seas.

Another point concerning which much dubiousness is being shown is the question of the Freedom of the Seas. People complain that the meaning of the phrase has never been definitely defined, and no one really knows what it signifies. Actually it has been again and again defined in America, but whilst the war was raging discussion of the matter was barred here.

What the Americans mean by Freedom of the Seas is practically the Declaration of London. Had the belligerents conformed to that Declaration which was drawn up by the representatives of all the maritime Powers in 1908, the principle of the Freedom of the Seas would have been maintained. Although Great Britain adopted the Declaration with certain modifications when the war broke out, she made so many exceptions to its articles as the struggle continued in order to carry out her blockade of Germany, that in the end she found it advisable to denounce it altogether. Yet it will be recalled that the Declaration, when drawn up, had the cordial approval of the British naval authorities, and was ratified by the House of Commons, though it failed to pass the House of Lords. No one questions that there is absolute Freedom of the Seas in time of peace. The American proposal is that, except in cases where the seas are closed in order to enforce international covenants, that freedom shall also exist in time of war. The whole question is bound up with that of the League of Nations. If the League materialises the Freedom of the Seas will be agreed to. If it does not, that freedom will not be agreed to. Viscount Grey takes the proper view of the situation, pointing out that the British Fleet would only be used by the League of Nations as an instrument to compel rebellious members to conform to the wishes of the majority, and that when so used the recalcitrant Power could not claim the privilege of the freedom of the seas. This former Foreign Minister asserted vigorously that he believed an Anglo-American quarrel utterly impossible, and so it is. The future fate of the world lies in the hands of the League of Nations; but the main pillars of that League must necessarily be Great Britain and the United States. If these two hold together Peace is sure, and it is well worth while making sacrifices to bring about a complete understanding and close alliance between the two peoples. The British Fleet exists not for selfish aggrandisement, but as an insurance policy for world Peace. Inevitably its present colossal size will be reduced as the necessity for the extra ships disappears, and later it will be further reduced if other fleets are limited proportionately, just as the land armies of the Powers will be decreased in size ere long. There is no proposal before the Peace Conference for the immediate dismantling of fleets and disappearance of armies. The reduction of armaments must necessarily be a gradual process, and it will be proportional. The process may be hurried, however, owing to the need for economy, which will press upon all the Powers who have been engaged in the war.

Conditions in Germany.

The Armistice has been extended until January 17th. One condition of this extension is that 2,500,000 tons of shipping now in German ports shall be allowed to put to sea with the sole object of conveying food supplies to Germany. The vessels are to remain the property of the Germans, but will presumably sail under the direction of the Allies. This arrangement suggests that the statements of Herr Ebert and other leading Germans as to the starving condition of the people are correct. The Chancellor has constantly asserted that it was impossible to establish a permanent Government whilst the people were clamouring for food, which, owing to the blockade and the surrender of rolling-stock could not be obtained for them. The permission given to German merchantmen to go and fetch supplies for the people shows that the Allies now realise that their enemies badly want food, and see that only by letting them get it can order be restored in the country. We here regard the possible break-up of Germany with utter unconcern, but it is different in Europe. There they know that if Germany splits into fragments it will be impossible to settle things up for years, whilst there would be little chance of obtaining the heavy damages which are being asked for. The Allies, indeed, are exceedingly anxious that a stable Government should be set up in Germany as quickly as possible. Reports as to what is actually taking place in the country are exceedingly contradictory. Some observers assure us that the Bolshevik element is gaining ground daily, and that ere long Germany will go the way of Russia. Others again assert that Herr Ebert has the situation well in hand, and that the Spartacus group has no real power. There is no doubt that had the German workers been as ignorant and illiterate as the Russians a Bolshevik Government would have been in power weeks ago. The common sense of the German people should, however, prevent the extremist elements from getting the upper hand. As pointed out before in these columns, the army is the controlling force in Germany. A

convincing demonstration of this was given when the guards marched proudly through the streets of Berlin, The capital was packed with wildly cheering crowds who hailed the return of their soldiers with acclamation. At present the army is supporting Herr Ebert, but if Dr. Liebknecht and the extremists seize power by some sudden *coup* it is not at all unlikely that the army may declare for a system of monarchical rule, and restore the Empire. The present Government offers the best chance of stability. If it falls, faction and intrigue would rend the country, and inevitably the people would get into two groups. the Extremists and the Monarchists. The probabilities are that the latter would prove the stronger.

Alsace to be French.

French troops have now occupied Strassburg, and their entry was made the occasion for a declaration by President Poincaré that France would never consent to the evacuation of Alsace and would not allow the people to decide their own future—by referendum. It is significant that he made no reference at all to Lorraine. The Germans in their Peace proposals to France, many months ago, offered to surrender Upper Alsace, and, indeed, this province is much more French than is Lorraine, which contains the rich iron mines. The future of that province is the real problem. The loss and recovery of Alsace touch the sentimental feelings of Germans and French, but the question of Lorraine is one of hard commercialism. Allied troops have now reached the Rhine, and the occupation of German territory west of that river is almost complete. Correspondents comment on the orderliness of the towns through which they pass, and on the well-nourished appearance of the people. Mr. Phillip Gibbs, however, asserts that although the casual visitor gets the impression that the inhabitants of the Rhine towns are living comfortably, careful enquiries show this is not the case. The Germans in their pride, he says, camouflage their miseries, but the wolf of hunger is at the doors of the poorer houses, where there is hideous stinting and scraping of the barest necessities of life. He found families sleepless through lack of food. They have no milk, no tea, no coffee, no bacon, no eggs, and no fish. At an infants' crêche in Cologne, the lady superintendent wept because the children were sickening owing to hunger, and declared that many of the mothers fainted whilst at their work. As ever, war bears most heavily on the innocent, and in a besieged country to-day, as in besieged cities in the middle ages, the defenders were well nourished, but the people had to suffer ghastly privations. It is pretty clear that nothing can be done in Germany until the people are fed.

Unhappy Poland.

French troops have landed at Odessa, and will presumably take a hand in Ukrainian affairs. The Government there has once more fallen, but the change of political leaders does not appear to affect the army which, after capturing Lemberg, is now investing Przemsyl, that famous fortress which so long withstood Russian attack. The Austrians have apparently decided to let the Ukrainians and the Poles fight it out. Both claim Galician territory, and are quarrelling over the ownership of the Cholm district. It is reported that the rivals have now agreed to allow the districts in dispute to determine their own future by means of a referendum. The taking of such a vote will have its humorous side, owing to the fact that so many of those entitled to exercise the franchise can neither read nor write. It would seem, however, that the Ukrainians intend to be in occupation when the vote is taken. Poland appears to be in very bad case. The Germans have withdrawn, and their retiring armies have been quickly followed by marauding bands of Bolshevik Red Guards, and Russian soldiers. Having apparently no organised army of their own, the Poles, instead of getting together and facing the situation unitedly, have elected to follow their old habits, and each do as he likes. The result is that those who have the means have turned their country establishments into fortresses, and defend them against the prowling freebooters, and those who have not flee to the towns. After living for many months on the country, the armies of Grand Duke Nicholas systematically destroyed every village and house in it as they retired before the advancing Germans. The armies of Von Hindenburg were in occupation for a couple of years, and are not likely to have left much. Now Russian robbers are engaged in destroying the little which was still undamaged. The Polish Government seems powerless, and having exchanged the German king log for the Bolshevik king stork, is now appealing to the

Allies to send troops to occupy the country and rid it of the Russian marauders. In Ukrainia the people appear to be united and to know what they want; but in Poland they are still at strife, and have failed to decide upon a definite system of government. The Poles demand increased territory, and desire to enlarge their boundaries at the expense of Prussia, Lithuania, Ukrainia and Austria; but have proved unable to grapple with the problems in Russian Poland alone, are in no fit state yet to assume greater responsibilities. The German troops, unwelcome as they were, yet appear to have maintained order in the western provinces of Russia. They will almost certainly have to be replaced by Allied regiments if Bolshevism is not to become rampant in them. If the Allies occupy these provinces it is difficult to see how they can longer avoid open strife with Russia.

Damage Wrought by Enemy Airmen.

Although in the early days of the war it is possible that people actually believed the statements in the papers that the German Zeppelins and aeroplanes did no harm when they raided English towns, ere it was over everyone must have recognised these as a species of well-understood camouflage. All the same, despite the fact that hundreds, if not thousands, of letters were received in Australia telling of the actual, and, in some instances, appalling, damage done, nothing ever appeared in the papers about it, and it is only when mention is made of the millions Great Britain will demand as compensation for damage by air raiders that we learn something definite about the destruction wrought. But even yet we have much more to hear. The brief message about the British claim states that a Zep. dropped a bomb in Wood Street which destroyed goods to the value of £500,000, that a single aeroplane bomb weighing 600 lbs. razed six large houses in Maida Vale to the ground, rendered twenty others uninhabitable, and damaged 400 more. Further that St. Paul's Cathedral was narrowly missed, whilst Waterloo and Westminster Bridges escaped destruction by inches. No fewer than twenty-three incendiary bombs fell into Woolwich arsenal grounds, but did no damage. But a bomb falling into Liverpool Street station destroyed two trains utterly. Nothing is said about the damage done in Dover and in the towns along the Thames. These unfortunate places suffered heavily, for the raiders picked up the river to guide them to darkened London and dropped bombs on them going and returning. It was indeed a miracle the Woolwich arsenal escaped, for rows of houses were destroyed near by, and at Margate and Gravesend, whilst more than one bomb fell right into a soldiers' camp not far away. The raiders must have just missed Parliament House when they almost destroyed Westminster Bridge. A bomb fell by the Bank of England, and damaged the coping, another injured Somerset House, and yet another did horrid damage in and about the Lyceum Theatre. It is noteworthy that the windows of the Waldorf Hotel and of other buildings near by were all blown *outwards* by the explosions, not inwards. Little glass was to be found in the rooms, but tons were swept up in Aldwych, Kingsway and the Strand.

Dropping Pills on Enemy Towns.

Many more instances of destruction might be given, yet we were always assured that the German airmen never hit anything but open fields, unless it were a church or hospital they had wickedly selected for their target. Of course one understood that such reports were designed to deceive the enemy, and therefore one could have no objection to being misled also, but the amazing thing was that hosts of people actually believed that no damage was ever done in spite of the elaborate defences the continued raids caused to be set up in London! On the other hand, we were asked to believe that when our airmen bombed enemy towns they invariably hit ammunition dumps and railways, aerodromes and munition factories, no bomb by chance falling on any dwelling not used for military purposes. Of course that was absurd, and yet people implicitly believed it! As a matter of fact this bombing of towns was altogether a haphazard business. The airmen had to be so high in the air in order to avoid anti-craft guns that it was quite impossible for them to take accurate aim at the microscopic buildings miles below them. Rushing along at a hundred miles an hour they got somewhere above the object they hoped to hit, and dropped bombs. The chances were that they fell as often on private dwellings, where slumbered women and children, as they did on barracks or munition factories. Even in Palestine, where the absence of anti-aircraft artillery made bombing easy, the missiles quite often fell in dwellings of no

military value, and dealt death and destruction amongst the civilian populace, as plenty of good photographs show. It is horrible of course, but it is war.

The Difficulty of Thinking Internationally.

I have referred at length to this matter of bombing, because it gives so good an illustration of the manner in which truth is inevitably distorted when nations are at death grips. How accurate the statement that the first casualty in war is the truth! All the same, as the struggle went on, we learned a good deal, and looked with suspicion on cables we would never have dreamed of questioning in 1914 of 1915. Ah, those early days! What credulity we displayed, how we were fooled and misled, how we believed the wildest reports of enemy frightfulness and treachery, and how absolutely convinced we were that everything they did was in violation of the rules of war and, *per contra*, everythink done by the Allies was in conformity therewith! Even yet plenty of people utterly believe that war, which calls forth the worst as well as the best in human nature, bestialised the enemy soldiers, but sanctified ours. It has been ever thus in all wars. The soldiers on one side were always devils; on the other always angels. Even later on, when accurate details come to light concerning incidents which have occurred during the struggle, we will utterly refuse to believe them, as we have always refused to believe anything which did not redound to our credit. That is, of course, very right and proper, for, according to most, a patriot must see no ill in his own country, but must regard it always as supremely in the right, no matter what it does. Such an attitude, however, makes it difficult for us to realise what others think of us. While it entrenches our nationalism, it makes internationalism more difficult, and, in the new world which the leaders of the Allied peoples are attempting to make, we must try to think internationally, not nationally. We have to realise that, after all, the other fellow believes his country always in the right, just as we believe ours, holds that it can do no wrong, and has all the virtues concentrated in it—just as ours has. We regard the Dutch, the Swedes, the Spaniards as less righteous than the French or the Italians, and far less efficient and purposeful than ourselves; but we have to remember that they look at us with very different eyes to those with which we look on ourselves. Conceivably they are quite as often correct as are we, have every bit as much right to say how the world shall be governed in the future as have we. It is extremely difficult to think internationally, to admit that the other fellow may be right and we may be wrong, to realise that the whole world does not measure us by the same measure as we measure ourselves. That, in a word, instead of our being the finest people in the world, we have all around us nations every bit as clever, as cultured, and well educated, and as upright as ourselves. That, instead of being the heaven-sent leaders of humanity and progress, we are, after all, but one in a group of nations charged with the reconstruction of the world. Yet we have to realise this if we would in very truth set up a League of Nations which, by controlling international relations, is to render the making of war immensely difficult in future.

The Election in England.

Owing to the Christmas holidays I am obliged to go to press several days earlier than usual, and before the results of the British elections have been made known. In our last number I explained that all the talks about killing the Kaiser, paying gigantic indemnities and banishing Germans from England were vote-catching dodges, and the immediate dropping of these demands the day after the election took place, proves that this was the case. There has been no reason to alter my previous forecast that Mr. Lloyd George would win. He had everything in his favour. If the elections had been postponed for six months, by which time the bulk of the army would have returned home, he would probably have been defeated; but by rushing the election immediately after the collapse of Germany, he made certain of being returned. Labour must necessarily be strong, and no doubt the astute Prime Minister will do everything in his power to induce some Labour men to join his Government. It seems probable that one or more women candidates will be successful, and we will see the spectacle of women members taking their seats in the mother of Parliaments, which for so long refused to even permit women to exercise the franchise. Women were allowed to become members of the London County Council, and several took their seats after the first election. To-day, however, though the number of councillors has been increased from 137 to 154,

there are only two women amongst them. Two of the twelve aldermen, though, are women. It is extremely unlikely that the women members of Parliament will ever be more than a handful, but that they will do good work there is certain.

The Future Government of the Empire.

The resignation of General Smuts from the War Cabinet indicates that whilst that distinguished man was willing to place his services at the disposal of the Empire when a common danger threatened, directly it has passed he becomes entirely South African once more. The object of the War Council has been achieved, it has no longer any real reason for existence, and General Smuts, who did not scheme for a place in it, but was urged to come and help British statesmen in their stupendous task, no sooner realises that than he withdraws. Letters from London give interesting side-lights on the doings of Imperial statesmen. Almost all agree in giving Smuts a high place in the councils of the Empire. The order in which the men are usually named is Lloyd George, Smuts, Borden, Curzon and Milner. Barnes seems to have been chiefly engaged with internal matters which did not concern visiting statesmen, and Mr. Hughes does not appear to have been taken much notice of at any of the meetings. He talked a good deal, apparently, but failed to impress these men who, day after day, had to make important decisions and *do* things, not merely *talk* about them. Some folks seem to imagine that the experiences gained by Dominion statesmen in London will cause them to urge the closer binding together of the Empire; but my advices, at any rate, by no means foreshadow this. Canada is likely to be more jealous than ever of her absolute freedom of action, and the feeling in South Africa is dead against the forging of any imperial bonds which later might prove irksome. Whilst the creation of a sort of Imperial Commonwealth is a most attractive sounding scheme, unless I am very much mistaken this war will not bring it to realisation. It is still based largely on Imperial preference, and, with food and raw products definitely exempted from all duties by Great Britain, preference means nothing at all to the Dominions. There may be alterations in the construction of our loosely bound Empire, but whatever alterations are made are likely to be in the direction of further loosening bonds, not in tightening them.

The Conscientious Objector.

Now that the war is over we are likely to hear a good deal about the treatment which has been meted out to the unfortunate conscientious objectors in every country where conscription was in force. Whilst the struggle raged discussion of the question of conscientious objection in countries which relied upon voluntary enlistments to fill the ranks of the army was completely barred, as it was held that it would seriously affect recruiting. An excuse, by the way, which was used to cover a multitude of prohibitions! In England, however, the papers were allowed to refer to the treatment of conscientious objectors, the matter having been freely canvassed in Parliament. Now a magisterial inquiry into the matter has been held in New Zealand. It found that physical violence had been employed instead of the regulation punishments, besides the use of "breaking-in" methods—the very name of which is suggestive. The magistrate found also that some "recalcitrants" had been punished twice for the same offence. No doubt the inquiry will elicit the facts concerning the sending of objectors away in transports, and of the condition in which they finally returned home. There are a large number of objectors in prison in New Zealand, and it is to be hoped that their long incarceration will soon terminate. The majority of those who for conscience' sake refused to take up a rifle wherewith to slay a fellowman were sentenced to eleven months' imprisonment as ordinary criminals. The sentence would have been for a longer period, but under the New Zealand Act a man convicted for a year for any crime was exempt from military service. Had the objectors been sentenced for a year, therefore, they would have been exempt from service when released; by putting them in gaol for eleven months only, they did not qualify for the exemption enjoyed by other "criminals," and could be promptly dealt with again under the Military Service Act. Recently, however, they have all been given two years gaol, with hard labour.

A Persecution "Truly Shocking."

Bad as things have been in New Zealand, and cruel as has been the fate of individuals, the objectors had had a much worse time in Great Britain. Dr. Clifford has stated that there have been ghastly scandals in connection with the treatment meted out to these men. They were put in irons, were badly fed, bullied, roughly

handled, threatened with death, sentenced to solitary confinement with hard labour for periods up to two years, or were sent to France with the information that there were two ways of disposing of them there. What did happen in the early days in France was that these men were brought before a court-martial for refusing to fight when put in the trenches, were formally sentenced to death and after due preparation were marched out before their fellows to be shot. Though a reprieve had been decided on—owing to the feeling it was feared would be aroused in England—the men were not informed of this, but were halted in front of a firing party and were only told of the commutation of the sentence after they had nerved themselves to meet the fatal bullets. They got ten years' hard labour. Numberless instances of cruel treatment and actual torture were made known by the press in England, but of course only faint echoes reached this country. When the treatment of conscientious objectors was brought up in Parliament, Ministers at first denied any knowledge of cruelty having been used, but after making enquiries the Under-Secretary for War said: "I think we are agreed all round the House that some of the kinds of persecution which have been inflicted on conscientious objectors are truly shocking." If the League of Nations comes into being the problem of the conscientious objector will disappear; if it does not, some definite understanding will have to be arrived at in the matter. It is obviously a difficult question to handle, and public opinion being dead against any man who believes that it is wrong to kill, even when ordered to do so by his Government, the genuine objector has a poor chance of getting decent treatment. The comment of the average man in the street is, "Shoot the beggar," or words to that effect. Yet even the careless, unthinking folk who too often mould public opinion must feel a measure of respect for a man who is prepared to be shot himself in cold blood rather than fire a shot which may chance to kill some other man. Such a man is obviously no malingerer, is probably quite as brave as the winner of a V.C. Those who, under the cloak of conscientious objections—having themselves no real moral scruples against the taking of human life—attempt to evade military duty ought, of course, to be punished; but the genuine objector ought not to be persecuted and tortured in the way he has been during the last two or three years. The Quakers for centuries have steadfastly refused to perform military service of any kind. To escape from persecution they crossed the Atlantic to the United States in large numbers. They, at any rate, should never be imprisoned for their conscientious objections, and it should be possible for a man to escape military service provided he was able to prove the genuineness of his belief by an appeal to his religious teachers and associates.

The Fate of the Internees.

There are at present at Holdsworthy, near Liverpool, Sydney, some 7000 Germans, Austrians and Australians confined in the narrow limits of a specially built camp. Many of these men have been there since the very outbreak of the war, their only offence being that they happened to be on the German merchant ships found in port on August 4th, 1914. Some have been there a few months only, others have been there for four, three and two years. Amongst them are Germans sent from Ceylon and Straits Settlements, whilst accommodation had been made for enemy aliens from China. For a long time some of these men were interned at Trial Bay, but at a moment's notice they had to abandon all their laboriously contrived gardens and other things to wile away the tedium of their incarceration and were whisked off in the night to improvised quarters at Holdsworthy, where they were separated from the main camp by fences of barbed wire. What is to become of these prisoners who, after wasting years of their lives in hopeless uselessness, three months ago were eagerly expecting deliverance. The irony of the situation is that had the war continued numbers of these men would have obtained their liberty under the terms of the agreement arrived at between Great Britain and Germany at the Hague. The coming of Peace, instead of hastening this liberation, has condemned them to a further indefinite period of imprisonment. We will assume of course that there was in every case ample reason for internment, although we cannot but recall that these reasons suddenly developed in spasms after public agitation for depriving all Germans of liberty, their continued freedom, so it was asserted, gravely interfering with recruiting. The good and sufficient reason in many cases was merely that they happened to be in Australia more or less by accident when war broke out. For such, at any rate, whose only desire is to get back to Germany, one would imagine that

leniency could be shown, nor would one imagine Australian safety endangered if the rigid discipline which has been maintained throughout the last four and a-half years were somewhat relaxed.

The Hard Case of the Australian Wife.

Many of these men are married to Australian women, whose lives during the war must have been a hell. With interruptions they have been permitted to speak to their husbands once a week for a short time in an open paddock, in the presence of a guard. We know from the statements of our own men that it is the deadly monotony of prisoner life which kills. As day follows day and week week, the monotony, the lack of employment, the horrid waste of time so repugnant to any energetic man, preys on heart and brain. Any break in welcome. We may preserve a special brand of hate for the Germans, and may rejoice in the suffering of the people as a whole, but we have no particular reason to persecute the prisoners at Holdsworthy, who, at any rate, are innocent of the crimes we attribute to their nation. Nor, in the hour of our victory, should we single out Australian women—who long ago married naturalised Germans here—for further suffering. One quite realises that, in the question of the general liberation of internees Australia must be guided by Great Britain, but there should be no need for our authorities to ask the British Government's permission before relaxing a cast-iron discipline in favour of Australian women who for years have been arbitrarily separated from their husbands. This is a matter in which the victors might well show a little generosity.

Assassination of Portuguese President.

The assassination of the President of Portugal was one of those senseless crimes which occur only too often in democratic countries. There is no suggestion that the assassin was the agent of royalists or others who desired to upset the Government and substitute another system. The President, Dr. Sidonio Paes, was largely instrumental in overthrowing the previous Republican administration, by means of a revolution in December, 1917. He was made head of a revolutionary Junta and became Acting-President. Four months later, in April, 1918, he was duly elected President. Portugal became a republic just eight years ago, when an almost bloodless revolution drove King Manoel into exile. He is one of the fortunate monarchs who, having been deposed, yet lives. The corruption of the monarchical regime took long to eradicate, and it was largely because of failure to hasten the cleaning up process that the Paes revolution was engineered last year.

The Naval Scandals.

A great political sensation was caused in Australia by the decision of the Federal Government to ask Mr. Jensen to resign the portfolio of Customs. It came to this decision as a result of the inquiry made by a Royal Commission into the purchase of the Shaw wireless plant and a couple of ships for the navy. Mr. Jensen, at that time Minister for the Navy, was responsible for the purchases, and his colleagues evidently held that his actions in connection therewith were such as to make it no longer possible for him to remain a Minister of the Crown. Naturally they would never have reached such a decision without ample reason, and on the strength of their action, rather than on the statements of the Royal Commissioners, the people generally assume Mr. Jensen not guiltless in the matter. He, however, point blank refused to resign, and dared the Government to turn him out. This Mr. Watt promptly did, through the Governor-General, who, by virtue of the authority conferred upon him, removed Mr. Jensen from his office. His Excellency hastened down from Sydney to sign the order. The question is naturally being asked, "If Mr. Jensen is not considered fit to hold a Ministerial portfolio, is he a fit person to sit in Parliament at all?" The ex-Minister put up a most able defence before the Royal Commission, and made considerable impression on men obviously inclined, by the evidence already heard, to take a very serious view of his position.

Mr. Jensen is "Removed."

Whether Mr. Jensen was guilty of an error in judgment merely, or of worse, it is perfectly clear from the evidence that the Naval Board failed to do its duty. As pointed out in an article published recently in STEAD'S, members of the Board have not acted harmoniously together as they should have done, and collectively, as a board, have failed again and again to stand up to the Minister. Mr. Jensen evidently regarded the Board as a weak thing, to which little notice need be given. He got no real help from it, and therefore

he did not take any trouble to get its advice, even on so important a matter as the expenditure of £55,000 on the purchase of a plant, concerning the real value of which the Minister himself necessarily could know little. Admiral Creswell suggested that the full Board should be consulted in the matter, and Admiral Clarkson disproved the purchase, but the Board as a whole failed to make any protest, and the member chiefly concerned appears to have been satisfied with formally registering his disapproval. The announcement that Admiral Halsey is to come to Australia raises hopes that there will be a thorough reorganisation of the Navy Department, uninfluenced by politics. The disclosures made before the Royal Commission certainly show that reform is necessary. Senator Long undoubtedly received over a thousand pounds from Father Shaw after the latter had been paid £55,000 for his plant, but he asserts it was paid him as a gratuity in recognition of friendship and of hospitality extended by the Senator to Father Shaw. With a recollection of the gigantic sums involved in the contract scandals after the South African War, the present matter seems insignificant. A payment of possibly £10,000 more for a plant that it could have been purchased for, and the mysterious disappearance of £5300 of this. The sums are very small, but the honour of a Minister of the Crown being involved, the matter is one of supreme importance. This is the first time in Federal history that a Minister has been removed from office by the Governor-General.

White Australia and Immigrants.

Considerable opposition to the Bill extending the War Precautions' Act was shown in the Lower House, but it was duly agreed to. Much criticism in the Senate is also foreshadowed, but the Government's majority there is too large for this opposition to suggest any hope of the Bill being defeated. After bringing in a Bill amending the War Profits' Tax, Mr. Watt suddenly dropped it, and matters remain as unsatisfactory with regard to war profits as they were before. The financial proposals of the Treasurer were brought forward at the eleventh hour, and the Government was directly challenged by dissatisfied Ministerialists on the question of economy. With many members of the Opposition away, the criticising amendment was in the nature of a protest only. Whilst there has been a good deal of wild criticism of Budget proposals, the fact remains that Federal expenditure, apart from the war, has mounted up at an alarming rate. One of the biggest drains on the exchequer is the Northern Territory. In order to carry out our White Australia policy it was, of course, necessary to try and settle our northern areas, but the results thus far attained are not cheering, and if, later on, this policy is modified, a great saving could be at once effected by abandoning what has proved to be a sentimental effort only. Papua will soon become self-supporting, but Australians are urging the taking over of the German colonies, which would for years add a further burden to the Treasurer's already too heavy load. Much of the special expenditure is quite justified in developing the country—providing such development helps on the speedy peopling of the land. Thus far we have spent more and more rapidly every year, but our population has increased but slowly. It is anticipated, by some, that there will be a notable influx of immigrants after the declaration of Peace, but the people anxious to leave Europe are not the people we welcome here. The migration of Italians, Croats, Slovaks, Ruthenians, and the many subject races of Austria and Russia has been arrested by the war. The tide will soon flow again, but not towards Australia. The United States will continue to get these immigrants, and will certainly get the majority of Germans, Austrians and Hungarians, whom heavy taxation and uncertain conditions will drive from their own countries. There are great schemes of development arranged for in England, and it is quite unlikely that the British Government will in future quietly permit the emigration of thousands of her best sons and daughters, as she did before the war. Radical alterations will have to be made here both in policy and in administration if Australia hopes to add notably to her population by immigration during the next decade.

A CAMOUFLAGED PRIME MINISTER.

WHEN WILLIAM MORRIS HUGHES SET OUT FOR ENGLAND IN 1916.

A PAGE OF SECRET HISTORY.

Looking through my note book, wherein are chronicled interesting items which have come under my notice during the last four years, I find many matters which have failed even yet to reach the ears of the public. One of the most amusing, and at the same time instructive, references has to do with Mr. Hughes' first trip to England as Prime Minister of the Commonwealth. We all remember how, after announcing his intention of leaving Australia on the *Osterley,* which sailed from Adelaide, and was to go via the Suez Canal, Mr. Hughes was farewelled and wished God-speed at the railway station en route to his steamer, how we next heard from him in Canada, where "a splendid reception had been accorded him," but of the secret arrangements which were made before he left the country we are most of us still in ignorance.

I find from my notes that Mr. Hughes sailed from Sydney on January 20th, 1916, on which day I set down a brief account of the happenings of the previous weeks. In reading this memorandum it is necessary to remember that at that time Mr. Hughes was at the height of his fame. The people as a whole regarded him as a heaven-sent leader of the most brilliant type, and but isolated voices were raised against him. Very few ventured to assert that Mr. Hughes, "Prime Minister," was just the same as Mr. Hughes, "politician," who had found little favour in the Commonwealth or to recall the fact that a leopard cannot change his spots. How far we have travelled since then! In those days to criticise Mr. Hughes was regarded as rank disloyalty—unpatriotic to the last degree. Now to criticise him is popular, and therefore those who were loudest in their praise in 1916 are now most strident in their blame. With this explanation, I will simply give my memorandum as originally written on January 20th, 1916:—

"Several weeks ago William Morris Hughes became Prime Minister of the Commonwealth of Australia. In order to get the position it was necessary to remove Mr. Fisher from that high office, and this W.M.H. did by inducing him to accept the position of High Commissioner in London in place of Sir George Reid. The latter was immensely disgruntled thereover, he having virtually been promised a continuation of the job. A day or two after the successful termination of the manœuvres which had as object his establishment in the Prime Minister's chair, Mr. Hughes suddenly produced an invitation from the British Government to visit London as soon as possible. He gracefully accepted it and announced his intention of going via Suez in January. Following on this declaration he openly booked his passage by the Orient liner *Osterley,* which was to leave Adelaide on January 21st, 1916, and sent out notices to the press saying that he was departing by that vessel.

In the last days of December and the first week of January, enemy submarines torpedoed many ships in the Mediterranean, amongst others the P. and O. liner *Persia,* the *Invergyle,* and a couple of large Japanese boats. Mr. Hughes learned, too, that several transports had also been torpedoed, although this information has, of course, not been made public. Evidently these untoward happenings caused our little Prime Minister furiously to think. Realising how immensely important he really was to Australia, and, knowing that, without him, the Commonwealth would be like a rudderless ship on a stormy sea, he came to the conclusion that it would be absolutely wicked to risk his valuable life by travelling on a ship which would have to run the gauntlet of the dreaded submarines in the Mediterranean. He no doubt further convinced himself that, in view of the action he had taken against enemy subjects in Australia, the Germans would

strain every endeavour to sink any ship on which he travelled. He, therefore, decided to slip away by another route going through Canada, but so hiding his tracks, by means of the powers conferred on him by the War Precautions' Act, that it should be universally thought that when the *Osterley* steamed out into the Bight she bore the precious freight as advertised. It does not appear to have worried him much that the passengers and crew of the Orient liner would run that special risk induced by his supposed presence on board, a risk which for the good of Australia and the Empire, he deemed it unwise to face himself! Mr. Hughes' change of plan had barely been decided upon when I was made aware of the fact. A few judicious inquiries, and I learned that he had secretly booked passages for himself and suite—in all a dozen strong—on the *Makura,* a liner which left Sydney to-day for Vancouver. She is to touch at Fiji and Honolulu.

It was obvious enough that Mr. Hughes would seek for some good excuse to explain to the Australian people why he had fooled them so theatrically concerning the route he proposed to take. What better reason could be found than a pressing invitation from the American, or, better still, the Canadian Government? Mr. Hughes' attitude towards the United States was hardly such as to warrant fishing for an invitation from Washington, but one from Ottawa might be forthcoming. If that could be arranged for, the people of the Commonwealth could be told later that, very reluctantly, Mr. Hughes had been persuaded to accept the urgently expressed wish of the Prime Minister of the sister Dominion, and, in deference to his desire for a conference, had, at the last moment, changed his plans, and had sailed on the *Makura,* although naturally at great personal inconvenience to the whole party. This scheme evidently appeared good to the Prime Minister, and the suggestion was promptly passed along to the Canadian Government that a pressing invitation be sent to Mr. Hughes to visit Ottawa.

All this was, of course, quite legitimate camouflage and quite harmless, apart, of course, from the additional danger to which the *Osterley* people were being needlessly exposed. But now comes the amusing part of the business. *Ottawa did not rise,* and, as day followed day, without that urgent invitation materialising we can imagine the chagrin of the Prime Minister who saw himself embarking on the *Makura* without any good explanation handy as to why he had fooled the people. Inevitably his enemies would not hesitate to declare that he, Mr. Hughes, was afraid of his own skin, and was sneaking away home via Canada because he was scared the submarines would get him if he went the way he had announced! In the end he had to depart without any pressing invitation from Canada to come over and consult on Imperial affairs with the Government at Ottawa.

The deception was carefully kept up, however. The Lord Mayor of Melbourne solemnly farewelled the Prime Minister at the Town Hall, Mr. Hughes letting it be understood that he was obliged to go up to Sydney, but would return in time to catch the mail train to Adelaide, where he would board the *Osterley.* An enthusiastic gathering saw him off at Spencer Street. He was also farewelled in Sydney, and, in order that the farce might be properly played out, Mr. Hughes and his party duly boarded the Melbourne express in Sydney railway station, and were bidden *bon voyage* by a representative gathering. I strolled down to meet the express when it reached Melbourne, and learned that, although the Prime Minister left Sydney on it he had been shed somewhere on the way, and had quite disappeared. He had apparently left the train at a suburban station, and had then been motored to the dockside and had boarded the *Makura.* Boarded it, too, without that pressing invitation from Ottawa he had hoped to have in his pocket. Let us hope he will have a pleasant voyage, but how, one wonders, will he explain his change of route so as to justify all this mystery and mummery?"

It was not until February 16th that the papers were allowed to mention the fact that Mr. Hughes had not sailed on the *Osterley.* By that time he had landed safely on the American continent. When at Spencer Street I met many who had come down to meet the Prime Minister, I noticed a couple of the Government cars and found that even his colleagues did not know of Mr. Hughes' mysterious movements. Yet, despite all his care,

plenty of interested people were perfectly aware of the change in his plans, though I fancy but few knew of his bitter disappointment over the failure of the Canadian Government to further them.

As the invitation was not forthcoming, no particular explanation was ever made concerning the eleventh hour change of plans, and the uncharitable were allowed to assume that the Prime Minister had funked the Mediterranean route, having placed an altogether too high value on himself, imagining that the Germans would go to any lengths to get him. Those who put that interpretation on the change of route failed altogether to realise how hugely important Mr. Hughes was to the Commonwealth, and how necessary it was for the Empire, indeed, for the world, that he should run no serious risks. Fortunately, he reached England safely, and there did wondrous work—on the platform. Later, he went to Paris, and put through resolutions which will forever be associated with his name. Despite the fact that these resolutions have now been torn up, are worthless scraps of paper, who dare say that his visit to London at that critical time was not of immense value to the Allies and contributed greatly to the downfall of Germany?

HOW THEY DO IT IN CANADA.

The Repatriation of Dominion Soldiers.

Some idea of the efficiency of the Canadian methods for dealing with the returned soldier may be got from the fact that the American authorities, with similar problems to deal with, have copied the Canadian scheme in many particulars. What in Australia is called the Repatriation Department is known in the Dominion as the Department of Soldiers' Civil Re-establishment, and is a purely civilian department. The returned soldiers under its care are all civilians, and the officers, medical and disciplinary, in charge of the institutions are also civilians. The Board of Pensions Commissioners is controlled by this department, which has also assumed the care of the patients in the hospitals.

The department publishes a monthly journal called *Reconstruction*, for the information of all interested in the welfare of Canada's returned soldiers. When it was created, the department inherited 200,000 cards from the old National Service Council, which contained information about 200,000 soldiers who had gone to the front. From these cards it was possible to ascertain how many men wished to go on the land, in what province they wished to settle, how many of the men could go back to positions which were being held open for them, how many have trades or professions, how many have family ties which would prevent them from changing their domicile, how many were young and single and able to settle in some other province if there were better openings for them there. Though Canada's enlistments have been well over half a million, it is estimated that the percentage proportions in reference to the 200,000 would apply fairly closely to the entire army.

What in Australia is called vocational training is known throughout Canada as industrial re-education, and opportunities for this re-education are given to the returned soldiers of the Dominion, but a special staff of interviewers is maintained by the Re-establishment Department for the purpose of interviewing every one of these to ascertain whether or not his injuries or condition of health are such as to prevent him from returning to the occupation at which he earned his living prior to enlistment. All those who are so disabled by their war injuries as to be unable to resume their pre-war vocations are entitled to be trained for new occupations. Training is given at the public expense, while the man and his family are maintained through an established scale of pay and allowances based approximately on military pay and allowances, and the patriotic fund allowance. It would seem that only those men unable to take up their old occupations are permitted to avail themselves of this re-education scheme. The attitude taken up in Canada is that the soldier does not wish to use his patriotic efforts in the military defence of his country as a lever to better his condition when he returns to Canada. Only if the injuries he has received in discharging his patriotic duty disqualify him from taking up his old occupation will the State undertake his re-education. On August 1st last 5000 disabled men had been approved for specific courses of industrial

re-education out of the 45,000 who had returned. Whilst the man is learning his new work he is given a vocational allowance, a single man obtaining £10 a month, a married man getting £7 10s. a month, and his wife £7, making a total of £14 10s. When there are children there is an allowance of 28s. a month for the first child, 20s. a month for the second, 12s. for the third, and so on.

The Department of Soldiers' Civil Re-establishment is closely associated with the Soldiers' Settlement Commission, which consists of a board of three persons, and has to deal with the placing of soldiers on the land. No applicant is granted a loan under the Act governing the soldiers' settlement unless his ability to farm is established. This being the case, the agricultural training of soldiers is being specially arranged for. This training is under the general direction of the department. At least one year must be devoted by the applicant to agricultural training, the greater part of this being spent with experienced farmers. In many cases the soldiers who enlisted were homesteaders on Dominion land who, on their return, found it impossible to continue farming without a provisional loan, and the Commission is dealing with them individually.

It is noticeable that in Canada the soldiers who come back are not described as returned men, but as "great war veterans." The pensions paid in Canada are said to be the most liberal in the world. The men are grouped in twenty classes. In Class 1 are those who are 100 per cent., that is to say, permanently disabled. In Class 20 are those men whose disabilities are reckoned at from 5 to 9 per cent. only. In Class 1 are all those who in Australia are regarded as totally disabled, and it is worth noting that blinded soldiers are definitely regarded as 100 per cent. disabled, and are therefore entitled to the highest pension. As a blind man requires somebody to lead him about, he is also entitled to what is called an allowance for helplessness, which amounts to £5 per month, sometimes more. The disabled soldier in Class I gets £10 a month, and if married an additional 32s. a month. Each of his children gets an allowance of 32s. a month as well. A blind man having a wife and child would get in all £18 4s. a month, which works out at just about four guineas a week, though it is not quite clear from the Canadian regulations whether a blind man who is married is entitled to the special allowance of £5 a month for helplessness or not.

It is specifically set out that disabled pensioners receive pensions for their disability quite independently of what they may earn. Several of the blinded soldiers are earning good salaries in Canada, but this makes no difference to the pensions they get. In this connection it should be noted that after sending a commission to inspect the training given the blinded soldiers by Sir Arthur Pearson at St. Dunstan's, the Canadian authorities made arrangements whereby blinded soldiers in need of training were sent from Canada to St. Dunstan's Hostel to get it. While there they received the Canadian rate of vocational pay and allowances during the period of training.

The total number of pensions awarded in Canada up to the beginning of June of this year was 34,879, the daily average number of pensions granted being at that time 120. The Canadian Government is paying 1878 pensions in the British Isles, 158 in the United States, three in Australia, two in South Africa, 25 in Newfoundland, one in France, three in Japan, two in Bermuda, one in Jamaica and five in New Zealand. The totally incapacitated soldier in Canada receives, as already stated, £10 per month. A sergeant gets £10 12s. 6d. a month, a sergeant-major £12 18s. 6d., a warrant officer £14 3s. 6d., a lieutenant £15, a captain £16 3s. 6d., a major £21, a lieutenant-colonel £26, a brigadier-general £45. When any female pensioner marries the pension ceases, but she receives a gratuity of one year's pension. All pensions are payable monthly in advance.

The loans given to soldiers taking up land must be expended under the supervision of the Board. No money is paid to them, but warrants are issued for special purposes, and these warrants are honoured by the banks just as are cheques. That is to say, a settler whose loan has been approved by the Board desires to purchase a plough from a vendor whom he names. The warrant is issued in the name of the vendor for the amount of the purchase. The vendor delivers the plough to the settler, who acknowledges the receipt on the warrant, the vendor certifying thereon that he has delivered the plough. This completes the warrant, and it is accepted by the bank, by whom it is charged against the settler's loan. In the western provinces, committees have been formed of men identified with agriculture, whose business it is to place soldiers who are anxious to find employment on reputable farms throughout the country.

DO YOU KNOW THAT—

8390 American airmen, all expert fliers, were in France in October, 1918?

On 1,400,000 new allotments 3,000,000 tons of potatoes were raised in England in 1917?

The Canadian authorities have forbidden the use of motor cars on Sunday for pleasure?

When the war ended Great Britain had the largest army in the field of all the Allies?

In the British ship-yards to-day women are building vessels completely from stem to stern?

In six gasless Sundays the United States saved 1,000,000 barrels of gasoline for military purposes?

The farmers of the United States in 1917 increased the area of food crops 23,000,000 acres over 1916?

The United Kingdom, which provided 78 per cent. of the Imperial forces, suffered 86 per cent. of the casualties?

Of the 13,000,000 men convoyed by the British navy during the war only 2700 were lost by enemy action?

In Canada they have economised food as rigidly as in the United States under the direction of a special Food Board?

One of the largest streets in Brooklyn, U.S.A., has been named Boulevard Joffre, in honour of the French Marshal?

Arrangements were completed in the United States for calling into service 2,399,000 soldiers before July 1st, 1919?

During the last few months of the war women volunteers for war work were being enrolled at the rate of 15,000 a week in England?

War Savings Certificates purchased in the United States have a total maturity value of 902,000,000 dollars (£180,400,000)?

The value of the fish caught in Canadian waters during 1917 was £10,500,000, as compared with £7,000,000 for the previous year?

The American Shipping Board has arranged for the construction of 2693 ships, with a deadweight tonnage of 16,305,004?

In Canada there is a special board dealing with soldier settlement, consisting of three commissioners, one of whom is a military man?

When the war ended there were 5,000,000 women in Great Britain doing 1701 different kinds of work previously performed by men?

The diseases most commonly conveyed through milk are typhoid fever, diphtheria, tuberculosis, scarlet fever and septic sore throat?

Arrangements have been made by the American meat packers to send 2,600,000 tons of meat to the Allied armies from October, 1918, to July, 1919?

When war broke out there were three national arsenals in England; when it ended there were 150, and no fewer than 5000 State-controlled factories?

Daylight Saving was in force both in the United States and Canada during 1918, and there was consequently no dislocation of Interstate train traffic?

Up to the end of March, 1918, the German air raiders had killed or injured 4568 persons in Great Britain? Of these 342 were women and 757 children.

During 1917, 500,651,086 barrels of oil were produced in the United States, the total produced since 1857 being 6,983,567,246 barrels of 42 gallons each.

There is in America an organisation of Americans of German descent known as the Friends of German Democracy, which favours the destruction of Hohenzollern rule?

By Order-in-Council, the Canadian Government has absolutely forbidden strikes for the duration of the war, fixing severe penalties for those who ignore ways to settlement?

Homes were provided in England for no fewer than 500,000 destitute refugees, and a complete garden city was built for the Belgians, who named it Elizabethville, after their heroic Queen?

The total shipping losses, Allied and neutral, up to September 1st, 1918, were 21,404,913 deadweight tons, and the total Allied and neutral construction to that date was 14,247,825 deadweight tons?

The British navy during the war convoyed ships carrying 2,000,000 horses and mules, 500,000 vehicles, 25,000,000 tons of explosives, 51,000,000 tons of oil and fuel, and 130,000,000 tons of food?

When the war broke out the British navy consisted of 2,500,000 tons of ship-

ping, and 145,000 officers and men? When the Armistice was signed the tonnage was 8,000,000, and the personnel nearly 500,000.

Germany manufactured 1,600,000 tons of nitrogen products from the air during 1917? American chemists are determined to make their country equally independent of the nitrate fields of Chili.

The American Red Cross erected a typical Belgian village on the slope of a hill near Le Havre, France? It was built so that when Peace came it could be readily taken down and shipped and reassembled in Belgium.

The headquarters for the salvage of used metals from the battlefields of France is situated at Swansea, in South Wales? This place was selected because of its proximity to the tin and terne mills of the United Kingdom.

During the campaign for the Fourth Liberty War Loan in America, Charles M. Schwab raised 52,000,000 dollars at a single meeting? As it lasted just under an hour, the average contribution was a million dollars a minute

The food needs of the Allies to be supplied from America for the next year include 6,000,000,000 lb. of fats, 900,000,000 lbs.| of beef products, 500,000,000 bushels of cereals, and 1,500,000,000 lbs. of sugar?

Three vessels, totalling over 16,000 tons, provided for in the Canadian Government's ship-building programme have already been delivered, and 21 other vessels, totalling 113,950 tons, will be delivered by the middle of 1919?

The convention between the United States and Japan, extending the general arbitration treaty for five years, and the commercial travellers' treaty between the United States and Uruguay, were recently ratified by the American Senate?

When the Armistice was signed, 1,000,000 women in the United Kingdom were making munitions? 500,000 were working in chemical and engineering factories, 300,000 were working on the land, 20,000 were working in the army, and 10,000 in the navy.

From September 1st, 1917, to September 1st, 1918, 2,000,000 deadweight tons of new ships were completed, and delivered to the American Shipping Board, and during that period over 3,000,000 deadweight tons were launched from American yards?

Of the 1,080,000,000 dollars' worth of material shipped from the United States to Russia since the beginning of the war, about 750,000,000 dollars' worth went to the two Arctic ports of Archangel and Kola, and 322,000,000 dollars to Vladivostok, Russia's chief port on the Pacific?

Owing to the great number of discharged soldiers in England who desire to become chauffeurs or office clerks every application for training in these two occupations is specially examined to see if it could not successfully be diverted into some other direction?

The traditional city government by mayor and council has been abandoned by more than 300 cities of the United States? In its place what is known as commission government has been set up. The Commissioners number five, and are elected by popular vote. The new system has proved most effective.

For the year ending September 30th, 1918, Canadian farmers supplied Great Britain with bacon and ham to the value of £8,000,000, frozen beef £3,300,000, cheese £5,600,000, condensed milk £550,000, butter £200,000, and lard £50,000? Altogether the British authorities purchased meat and dairy products worth £18,000,000, from Canada during the year.

In a recent inquiry by a Royal Commission into a dispute between the metal workers and their employers in Winnipeg, it was found that the working day was ten hours and five hours on Saturday, and it was estimated that a reduction of the hours of labour from ten to eight as demanded by the men would add at least 20 per cent. to the cost of production?

Thirty years ago British manufacturers were almost the only suppliers of machinery to Java, and there were no German suppliers, but at the outbreak of the war there were no fewer than 35 German firms trading in Java? There are some 250 coffee estates, over 100 of these producing in big quantities and using machinery; over 200 tea factories, 100 of them with a production ranging from 400,000 lbs. yearly to over 1,000,000 lbs.; 79 rubber factories, with a yearly capacity of over 300,000 lbs., and 150 with a capacity of about 150,000 lbs. each.

HISTORY IN CARICATURE.

Oh, wad some Power the giftie gie us
To see oursels as ithers see us.—Burns.

Although the American papers contain the most spirited cartoons dealing with the fact that it was the coming of the men from the United States which made Allied victory possible, the journals of the Allies and neutrals also give the Americans full credit for the final defeat of the Germans.

The Brooklyn Eagle shows an American soldier shooting the German plunderer, which took him to be nothing more than a scarecrow to frighten such birds away.

The Dayton News shows the first million American soldiers in France giving the Germans a knock-out blow, and declares that this is only the "hat" of the nation, which is following as rapidly as it can.

The French papers have contained many tributes to America. That reproduced from *La Victoire* appeared after General Pershing had wiped out the enemy salient at St. Mihiel. ,

Eagle.] [Brooklyn.

THEY SAID IT WAS ONLY A SCARECROW.

La Victoire.] [Paris.

AT ST. MIHIEL—THE UNKNOWN FRIEND.

Daily News.] [Dayton.

"REMEMBER, WILHELM, THAT'S ONLY OUR HAT IN THE RING."

Daily News.] [Dayton.

THE STRONGER WE GO, THE SOONER THE END.

Herald.] [New York.

"WE ARE COMING, LLOYD GEORGE, IN SPITE OF HELL AND POLITICS."

The Dayton News has another clever cartoon showing the "once icy calm German indifference and contempt for America's fighting strength and ability"

Daily News.] [Dayton.

MELTED.

Tribune.] [New York.

HOW LARGE TO MAKE OUR ARMY.

Ledger. [Philadelphia.

OUR BIG GUN SPEAKS.

being melted under the bayonet rays of the oncoming American Army.

Daily News. [Dayton.

"GET AWAY FROM THE GASOLINE TANKS."

Ledger. [Philadelphia.

LEAKING OUT.

"Leave it alone, you fool, it's poisoned."

Quite a number of papers in America and elsewhere, just before the end of the war, were emphasising the fact that the German people were at last beginning to realise the fact that victory was no longer possible. Several cartoons dealing with this question are reproduced on this page.

News. [Dallas.

THE FIRST DOUBT.

Le Rire.] [Paris.

MICHEL BEGINS TO HAVE DOUBTS.

"They always laugh when they talk to me about electoral reform!"

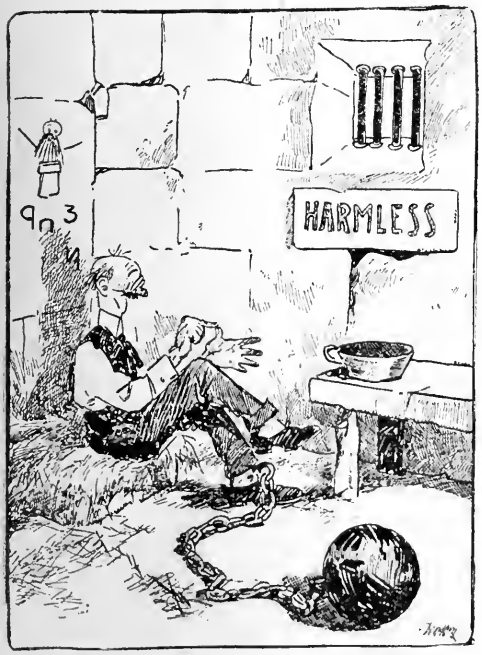
Le Rire, Paris, shows the German people beginning to have doubts concerning the promises of the Kaiser and his advisers about electoral and other reforms in Prussia.

The hopelessness of correctly interpreting the news from Russia is made the occasion of a spirited cartoon from *The Chicago Tribune*, and of an amusing drawing in the Cleveland *Plain Dealer*.

Evening News.] [Newark.

GETTING RESTIVE.

The German cartoonists have all along done their best to prove that John Bull is consistently working for his own advancement at the expense of his Allies. A typical cartoon is that from *Kladderadatsch*, reproduced on the next page.



Plain Dealer.] [Cleveland.

PICTURE OF A MAN WHO KNOWS ALL ABOUT THE RUSSIAN SITUATION.

Tribune.] [Chicago.

THE NEWS FROM RUSSIA.

Kladderadatsch.] [Berlin.

1. JOHN BULL: "So, dear friends, as you are such noble souls, I have nothing against your Siberian expedition."

2. JOHN BULL: "My good Jonathan, keep an eye on that Jap.; he is serving his own ends."

3. JOHN BULL: "My dear friend Jap., keep an eye on the Yank."

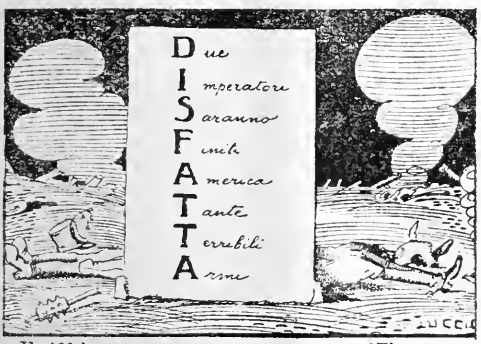
Nebelspalter.] [Zurich.

FINE COMPANY.

The Knight, Death and the Devil (after Durer).

Times.] [Elizabeth.

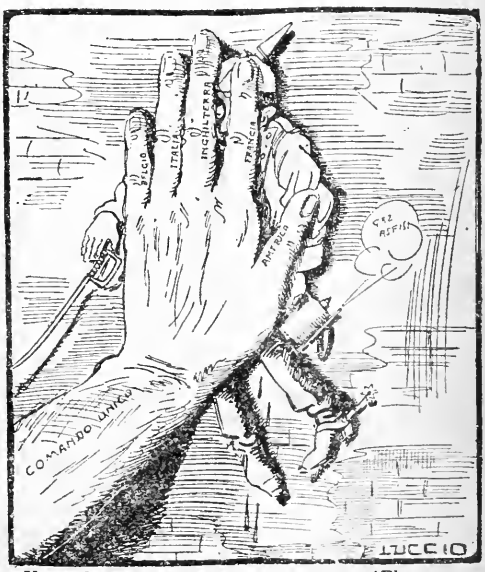
WHEN THIEVES FALL OUT.



Il 420.] [Florence.

AN ACROSTIC.

The word Defeat is made to read, "Two Emperors will be defeated by America's terrible armies."

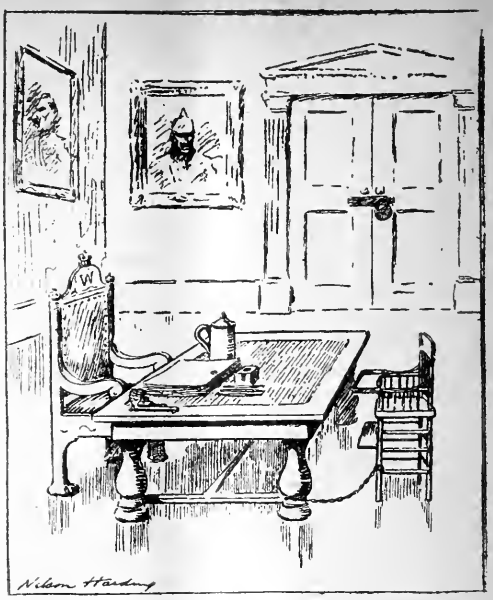


Il 420.] [Florence.

KAISER: "This continued pressure is making me short of breath."

News.] [Newark.

NOT YET HOG-PROOF.



Eagle.] [Brooklyn.

CONFERENCE ROOM OF THE TWO KAISERS.

The Swiss *Nebelspalter*, *following* Durer's famous drawing, shows War, the Profiteer and the Hoarder as Death, the Knight, and the Devil. Despite stringent regulations and heavy taxes, huge war profits are still being made in the United States; but the Government is determined to prevent individuals benefiting unduly by the war.

The Passing Show.] [London.

OVERCOME BY THE ATMOSPHERE?

MAGISTRATE: "What is the charge against this prisoner, sergeant?"

POLICEMAN: "I found him lying down by the Foreign Office, your Worship, sound asleep, and he refused to get a move on."

MAGISTRATE: "Fourteen days' hard labour for impersonating a Civil Servant!"

The Passing Show.] [London.

ALL THE DIFFERENCE.

COLONEL: "You blithering idiot! Instead of addressing this lottor to 'The Intelligence Officer,' you've written 'Intelligent Officer.' There's no such person in the army!"

POST WAR PROBLEMS.*

By Professor Meredith Atkinson, M.A., University of Melbourne.

V.—THE WORLD'S COMMERCE.

The ruling factor in the finance and commerce of the world for many years to come will be the aggregate national debts of the principal countries. The total cost of the war to all the nations concerned is at least £40,000,000,000, and this does not include the enormous loss through the halt in the production of wealth due to war conditions and actual loss of man-power. To complete the tale of the world's burden, we must add the pre-war debt of the nations, which totalled at least £7,000,000,000. Not only must the trade of the next generation discharge the interest bill and provide for the redemption of this colossal debt, but it is certain that wages practically all over the world will be much higher than in the past, and that a large number of costly social reforms, such as those outlined by the Prime Minister of Great Britain, will be instituted.

The advantages and disadvantages under which industry and commerce will labour for the next few years may be conveniently summarised. The disabilities, bound to be considerable, will include—(1) the loss of a great number of our best producers; (2) the loss of a huge amount of capital, more especially the best of our foreign securities; (3) the impairment of our national machinery of production; (4) the disorganisation of our financial machinery, owing to inflation, accompanied by severe stringency in the supply of capital; (5) great internal dislocation and disturbance in every country, owing to millions of soldiers and millions of munition workers seeking employment. These serious industrial difficulties will be greatly aggravated through the revolution created by the relaxation of Trade Union conditions and the entire re-organisation of the factories, both with regard to the employment of women and the general conditions of labour and production. (6) External disturbance, economic and political, owing to the complete upheaval of foreign markets, international commerce and finance, and the political unrest inevitable in a world fundamentally changed; (7) heavy taxation, which will bring its own complications through the conflict of class interests, aggravating the strife between capital and labour.

On the other hand, the world resumes business on a peace footing with some distinct advantages. (1) Except in the cases of those nations whose territory has been actually devastated, the factors of production in the world as a whole have not been materially damaged, and, in most cases, have been made much more efficient under the pressure of the war. (2) The close control of shipping, commerce and production exercised by the Allied Governments in co-operation, has had the effect of eliminating a vast amount of wasteful competition and immensely speeding-up production. (3) Though the total losses in man-power are, from the human standpoint, appalling and disastrous, the supply of labour in the world has not been phenomenally depleted, and is entirely adequate to the world's needs. (4) The financial machinery of the world is intact, and has not only stood the unprecedented strain with success, but has actually profited from the experience of the war. (5) Though unrest and disturbance, both internal and external, are inevitable, the economic effects of the League of Nations will probably be in the direction of a great increase in the world's wealth, while the quickened conscience of all classes will probably go far towards solving the industrial problem, with a consequent increase in production.

All authorities are agreed that the adoption, during the last four years, of

*Professor Meredith Atkinson's next article, "Finance and Credit," will appear in our January 25th issue.

the best machinery and the entire reorganisation of business methods, are sufficient in themselves to bring about a great increase in production. Edison, the American inventor, has expressed the opinion that England's productivity has doubled since the beginning of the war. The further application of science to every branch of industry, the growth of the large scale business organisation, great improvements in the marketing of products, a general increase in the efficiency of both workers and employers, all influenced by the spur of a keener competition than the world has ever known, will go far to make up the leeway, and to pay off the accumulated war debt. Added to these advantages are two great new factors, the development of aircraft, and the supply of cheap power. It is certain that there will be, in the immediate future, a phenomenal growth in the use and efficiency of aircraft, both for postal and commercial purposes. The economic, social and political effects of such a revolution of communications can hardly be exaggerated. New trade routes, hitherto inaccessible areas, and unconnected centres, will be opened up for every purpose.

Of more immediate importance are the vast possibilities of cheap electric power. The British Coal Commission in 1905 reported that "the evidence points to a future extension of central power stations and the generation and transmission of power upon a large scale. If such stations were established in close proximity to the collieries, there would be nothing to pay on the coal in the way of railway rates, and the question would then be, not the cost of transport of coal, but the cost of transmission of power." The President of the Institute of Electrical Engineers in England recently declared that the adoption of the "all-electric" plan would save nearly two-thirds of the total amount of coal per annum used for commercial purposes in Britain. The plan provides for one distributive system, involving a hundred great power stations, from which electrical power for manufacture, transport, heat and light could be supplied to the whole country. The saving in coal alone would rise from 25,000,000 tons per annum to 50,000,000 or 60,000,000 tons. In addition to the economy, a vast increase in production would be made possible. Still more important to future generations would be the social revolution effected by such a network of power-supply in the distribution of manufactures and agriculture, the cleansing and beautification of urban and rural life, the hygienic conditions of the community, the distribution of population, and the solution of many domestic problems. The use of "brown coal" in Victoria, and water-power in Tasmania open up similar prospects for some States of Australia.

So far, in this brief survey of the post-war condition of the factors of production—land, labour, capital and organisation—we have noted to the world's credit considerable advantages over the pre-war situation. The land will also certainly be more productive than before, both in foodstuffs and raw materials, for we have learnt more intensive methods of culture and the avoidance of many forms of waste. In the production of foodstuffs England's experience in intensive agriculture during the war has been a revelation. Even in countries where extensive cultivation is still largely employed, the economies and improvements effected in growing and handling have been very considerable. But all these improvements will be needed to overtake the food shortage, from which the world was suffering many years before the war, and also to keep pace with the ever-rising standard of living now affecting all nations.

Whether the factor called labour has also increased its efficiency of production is not so easy to determine. Certainly the output of the individual worker has risen enormously under war conditions. But this is not a true measure of his efficiency, since better machinery, improved organisation and longer hours account for the greater part of the increase. It is, however, probably true to say that these various improvements and the general war pressure have raised the standard of efficiency of the worker. But machinery and organisation are in most industries much more important factors of efficiency than labour. Nevertheless, the productive powers of the average worker are capable of a remarkable increase. This is shown by the working of the sys-

tem, adopted chiefly in the United States, known as "Scientific Management."

The fundamentals of this scheme are —(1) A scientific system of piece-work rates, based upon elaborate "time studies" and "motion studies" of each operation, so as to find the most scientific way of doing the most minute pieces of work; (2) the use of a "card-system," both for record and instruction, setting forth every movement of tools, materials and workmen on a job; (3) the greatest possible standardisation of tools, operations, equipment and products; (4) scientific division of labour amongst foremen, each being a specialist either in instruction or supervision. There is no doubt that the application of this system is the logical completion of the industrial revolution, in that it seeks to increase the efficiency of labour as well as that of machinery. There is equally no doubt that it makes possible large increases in dividends and wages, the shortening of hours and the reduction of fatigue.

But the objections raised to it in a most thorough enquiry conducted in America by the Hoxie Commission are, in the present stage, at any rate, fundamental. Its advantages in the increase of efficiency and production are admitted, and deserve the name scientific. For the capitalist and the manager it is highly instructive and profitable. But for the wage-earner it is no solution to the industrial problem. It is death to the Standard Rate of Wages on which Trade Unionism has been compelled to insist through generations of struggle. It does not save the piece-work rates from being reduced by the employer. Scientific management, therefore, offers no economic security to the worker. It does not make his employment any more certain, and makes that of his more inefficient brother much less secure.

Moreover, it makes no sort of provision for raising the status of the worker to that of a partner in the control of industry. The conditions of his work are more rigidly settled than ever before, and, though he is a more highly trained, he is none the less a more unskilled worker. The effect of monotonous perfection of muscular action upon the mind and health of the worker is also problematical. But, perhaps, the most serious objection to scientific management is its liability to grave abuse in the hands of employers who may be either too ignorant of its methods or too greedy for profits to make it "safe for democracy." That this is frequently so investigation has proved. For, after all, the mere increase of wealth is less important than justice and happiness. It is not only just, but common sense to base any methods to secure increased production upon conditions that will, at the same time, satisfy the legitimate claims of labour. Those claims are for security in the standard of life of the worker, and the fullest recognition of his right to a share in the control of industry.

The greater efficiency of machinery and organisation, to which I have already referred, will be much enhanced by the rapid development of the Trust movement in industry. It has often been pointed out that one reason why Germany and America had ousted Great Britain from her supremacy in certain fields of production is that their industry, commencing much later than that of England, was organised on the large scale basis. Though the growth of huge combines was taking place in England long before the war, the American Trust and the German Kartel were much more typical of the industrial structure in those countries than the large enterprises of England. Without going into the reasons for this, we may be quite certain that the economic combine has not only come to stay, but will rapidly increase both its area of control and its commercial grip, now that the war is over.

Amalgamations in banking and shipping alone in England have now proceeded so far that less than half-a-dozen firms practically control those economic fields. Everything points to a vast extension, both of these amalgamations and of the promotion of new enterprises on the scale of the large monopoly. Government regulation during the war has greatly assisted this development. For example, the Committee of the Privy Council entrusted with the disbursement of £1,000,000 for the aid of industrial research, found it very difficult to carry out this trust without the association of the various industries concerned for the common purpose. There has occurred, therefore, a combination of many Eng-

lish firms which will probably endure and expand.

The Empire Resources' Development Commission includes in its proposals one for a grant by the State of chartered monopolies, subsidised with millions from the national Treasury, to companies of shareholders who will undertake land settlement, or the control of ocean fisheries, or the exploitation of various products of the Empire. The British Government has shown some tendency to adopt this kind of subsidised charter. This proposed partnership in enterprise between the State and the capitalist is a new development, fraught with both danger and hope. If it results merely in a more intensive exploitation of our resources, without any better attention to the rights of subject peoples and of the workers in the industries concerned, it will be unquestionably dangerous. If, on the other hand, the British Government exacts as the price of monopoly adequate safeguards of the rights of producers and consumers, a new and helpful form of co-operation may be established.

Why should not the State demand representation on the Directorates of all monopolies, whether set up with its own support, or developed by private enterprise? It is futile and reactionary to attempt to suppress a combine which effects real economies and increases the world's wealth. But we cannot afford to allow these huge business monopolies to develop uncontrolled, or we put ourselves under an economic tyranny far worse than any despotism of the past. The community has every right to demand representation upon the Boards of these Trusts, and, where possible, representation for the workers in the particular industry concerned. With such safeguards, we could afford to assist the development of the big business, since it has undoubted economic advantages which would help us to increase the world's wealth and pay off the debts of the war.

Trusts and combines have been most successful where certain favouring conditions exist; as when industries require very large capital, or where the product is uniform or bulky, and freights heavy; where raw materials are easily controlled, where costly experiments and increases of plant have to be undertaken, and where success depends upon costly patents or heavy advertising expenses. The Trust is thus the child of modern industrial conditions. Though the world is in for a period of the keenest competition, it will be rivalry within more and more circumscribed areas. Though the small business is by no means doomed, and is likely to persist in many industries, international trade will be mapped out more and more on the large scale, with increasing intervention by Governments and closer co-operation between them for the control of essential foodstuffs and raw materials.

On the whole, I consider our prospects of recovering the economic ground lost, paying off the war debt—apart from indemnities—and increasing the world's wealth in general are decidedly good. During the nineteenth century the aggregate commerce of the world increased twenty-fold. Though that rate of increase cannot, of course, be maintained, we require only a relatively small percentage of increase to make us economically safe. The total annual commerce of the world before the war was estimated at £5,000,000,000. Of this total the British Empire enjoyed two-fifths. If we increase our own commerce by fifty per cent., and continue the present rate of taxation, we should provide for interest and redemption with comparative ease.

I believe that pressure of circumstances, combined with the other factors which I have analysed, will lead to an unprecedented increase in the production of every nation. That there will be many disturbances and interruptions, both local and international, is inevitable. But the human race has never before been in a position to analyse its own situation so thoroughly, to take stock of all its resources, to be forewarned of pitfalls, and to plan in so deliberate a fashion the making of its future. With such knowledge and under such pressure, we shall face the future with confidence. The earth is capable of an infinitely greater production than we have derived from it. Just as we have never needed its products so urgently, so too we have never been so well equipped to acquire them.

THE CZECHO-SLOVAKS.

In the early days of the war, and throughout the four years of the struggle, I consistently declared that the Czecho-Slovaks ought not to be regarded as enemy subjects; were, in fact, more our friend than our foes. It was not, however, until this year, that a general appreciation of this fact came to Great Britain and Australia. Once it had done so we find plenty of people eager to laud them in the newspapers and elsewhere. Some, at any rate, of those who are now writing so strongly in praise of the Czechs admit that they were fully aware of the Czechish attitude towards the Central Powers all along. It is to be hoped that they feel some measure of shame that, though they were perfectly aware of the real state of affairs, they never raised their voices or used their pens to mitigate the bitter feeling which was shown in this country and elsewhere against the Czechs for three years and more, whilst the struggle was continuing. One can forgive the ordinary newspaper writer and the ordinary politician for the blunders they made, but one has nothing but the supremest contempt for those who actually knew better, but yet were *afraid* to tell the truth. Yet these despicable men pose as patriots, forsooth, though they only write what they judge will be popular!

The World's Work contains some most interesting articles on the Czecho-Slovaks, which go a long way to give us a true appreciation of these people. One of the writers, George Macadam, tells of the way in which these folk were treated by the Austrians during the war.

As subjects of Austria-Hungary it was the technical duty of the Czecho-Slovaks to join the colours and assist their oppressors in bringing a nation of brother Slavs under the same oppression. In spite of the tragic difficulties of their situation, in spite of the fact that their land is completely under the heel of their oppressors, in spite of spies, persecutions, executions, even massacres, the Czecho-Slovaks faced the situation with a courage worthy of their past.

There were mass demonstrations against mobilisation. Czech soldiers declared that they would turn their guns on their officers and the Germans. Many arrests were made and death sentences pronounced in the early days of August, 1914, but the executions failed to intimidate them, and there were further demonstrations later in the month. In September the 8th Regiment of the Czech Landwehr, when ordered to the Russian front, refused to entrain. The soldiers attacked their German officers, and, singing national songs, massed themselves at the railway stations. A German regiment was called up, and, after spilling much blood, forced the Czechs into the cars.

In the same month, the 36th Czech Regiment mutinied in barracks, and was massacred by German and Magyar troops. By order of the Minister of War all Slavic soldiers were forbidden to carry their regimental colours and ensigns. As they went to the station they were escorted by double the number of German and Magyar troops, and no one was allowed to bid them farewell.

But now the Czecho-Slovaks hit upon a more effective method, not only of hindering their oppressors, but also of helping their oppressors' enemies. Taken to the front, they deserted—often as a regimental unit—to the other side, not to get out of the war, but to get into the war as they wanted to be in it. The spirit in which these Czecho-Slovak regiments "surrendered to the enemy" is indicated by the action of the 102nd Regiment. It crossed over in a body to the Serbians, and entered Nish with its band playing the Serbian national hymn. Similar incidents also occurred on the Russian front.

This "crossing over" was, however, not easy, and, on many occasions, the deserting troops were caught by the artillery of the German and Magyar regiments, and were completely wiped out. The wholesale desertions explain the unaccountably heavy captures which were reported by the Russian commanders in 1914-15. Says Mr. Macadam:—

After ten months of continuous effort, the Czecho-Slovaks had succeeded in disorganising the army. Then the Germans of the Empire took over the management of the Austro-Hungarian armies. The Slavic regiments were disbanded and their soldiers distributed among German and Magyar regiments. This made mass surrenders almost impossible. But large bodies of Slavs continued to go over to the "enemy." They did it on the Isonzo front, and they did it in Transylvania. It is estimated that 350,000 Czecho-Slovak soldiers have

thus "surrendered" to the Serbs and Russians alone.

The same sturdy spirit of refusal to aid the Teuton cause was shown by the civil population. In spite of threats, the Czecho-Slovaks flatly refused to subscribe to the war loans or to part with their surplus of foodstuffs. All the prominent Czecho-Slovak leaders were put in prison or fled into exile, or were forced into the army. It has been stated in the Austrian Parliament that no fewer than 30,000 civilians—Czecho-Slovaks, Poles, Jugo-Slavs, and Italians—were condemned to death. Czecho-Slovak newspapers were all suppressed or muzzled. All Czech societies, clubs and the like were shut up. Whenever the Austrians took Czechs who had deserted prisoners they hanged or shot them out of hand, as, of course, they were entitled to do under international law, even though the deserters were wearing Italian, Russian or Serbian uniforms.

Mr. Macadam sets down the story of Captain Vlavimir Hurban, who commanded the advance train of the unique Czecho-Slovak army in its railroad march across a continent and a-half, fighting the enemy and hostile friends the whole way. The captain says that early in March near Kieff, Ukrainia, there was camped an army of about 50,000 Czecho-Slovaks, a united force which had been fighting against the Austro-Germans side by side with the Russians. When Bolshevik Russia began Peace negotiations the Czecho-Slovaks refused to make Peace, and remained a formidable fighting force camped in the midst of a friendly nation that had entered into negotiations with their enemies. The Ukrainian Bolsheviki asked the Czecho-Slovaks to help them hold back the invading Germans, but the advancing army consisted mainly of Ukrainians friendly to the Czecho-Slovaks and the request was refused. The Bolshevik Red Guards, failing to get Czecho-Slovak assistance, turned and ran, and abandoned everything which they had no immediate use for. Says the Captain:—

"A Bolshevik Red Guard runs as fast as he can, steals everything he can lay his hands on, and sells all he can. A rifle goes for a half-ruble, a machine-gun for one ruble, a three-inch gun for from five to ten rubles. Our volunteers and the local peasants buy. One village bought a 15 cm. howitzer for twenty-eight rubles."

Meanwhile Professor Masaryk had set up a Czecho-Slovak National Council in Paris, which had been recognised by the Allies. He came to Russia, and negotiated with the Bolsheviki a safe conduct for the Czecho-Slovak army across Russia and Siberia. There was great rejoicing in the army, which adopted the cry, "Forward—round the world to France." Unfortunately, however, the flying Red Guards had taken all the engines and most of the passenger and freight cars, so that the Czecho-Slovaks had no transport when they wished to begin their long journey to Vladivostok.

And now began a remarkably picturesque round-up of railway transportation facilities. The Captain describes it with graphic, gun-muzzle succinctness: "As said before, the Bolsheviki in their panicky flight, used the railroads. Thus it happened that all locomotives were gone, only some freight and passenger waggons left, and not many of these. The first locomotive that we took possession of was manned by fifteen to twenty of our boys with two machine-guns, and sent to follow some Bolshevist 'army.' When our locomotive caught up with such an 'army,' they ordered the 'army' to leave the trains, which command was very promptly obeyed under the threat of two machine-guns. Then the rear locomotive took the train back, while the front one, manned by our boys with their machine-guns, went to catch another train. In such way, we had a sufficient number of locomotives and waggons in four days. When we were catching trains, the locomotives were run by our boys; after we got all the trains we needed, and started for Moscow, the locomotives were run partly by our people and partly by Russian railroad employees who always and everywhere sympathised with us."

They soon clashed with the Germans, but as they got further east their troubles were with the Bolsheviki, despite the fact that the latter's Government had agreed to allow them a free passage. When the army was near Moscow, it could have easily taken the city and arrested the whole of the Soviet national delegates without any difficulty. It was well armed and equipped, and it would have been welcomed with joy by the majority of the people of Moscow. But the Czecho-Slovaks did not wish to interfere with Russian internal affairs, were anxious only to get away to Vladivostok and thence to France. At that time every

Czecho-Slovak soldier had from two to three rifles, every regiment from 200 to 300 machine guns, but to quiet the apprehensions of the Bolsheviki they gave up to them all the weapons not actually needed. Four hundred miles east of Moscow the army was stopped by orders from the Bolshevik headquarters. A small force of Red Guards attempted to check their progress, but ultimately the Czecho-Slovaks overcame the Bolshevik opposition by handing over all arms with the exception of ten rifles and one machine-gun to each thousand men. In a later number, Captain Hurban will tell of the marvellous adventures which befell the army in the strange 4000-mile journey, which was now begun.

Professor Masaryk had meanwhile gone to Japan, and arranged for transportation of the army across the Pacific to the United States. He then went to America.

A long and unexpected silence followed. Then came fragmentary, contradictory, disquieting news; the Czecho-Slovak soldiers, sometimes in Russia, sometimes in Siberia, had clashed with the Germans, with the Bolsheviki, with combinations of Germans and Bolsheviki. Then at last came the amazing truth from Vladivostok; part of the Czecho-Slovak army had fought its way six thousand miles across Siberia to the Pacific port; the remainder of the army was stretched out along sections of the trans-Siberian Railroad, holding it against Bolsheviki and Germans.

Then came the determination of the Allied Governments to intervene in Russia and here, ready-made, they found the efficient edge of whatever wedge they might decide to drive into that vast country. The Czecho-Slovak National Council was asked to abandon its plan of moving its army to the Western front, and to allow its forces to remain in Siberia to be used as the nucleus of the Allied armies which were to march towards Russia.

THE THEATRE AT RUHLEBEN.

Miss Lena Ashwell, O.B.E., the well-known actress, makes a strong plea in *The Fortnightly Review* for State subsidies to theatres, basing her article on the prisoners' theatre at Ruhleben. When she wrote, the war was still raging, but most of the inmates of the famous, or infamous, camp had been transferred to Holland where they were interned. An interesting scheme for the founding of a British theatre at The Hague was the outcome of their experience during three and a-half years' imprisonment at Ruhleben. One would have thought, she says, that any request from these men would have been instantly considered and acknowledged by the British Government, but the Minister of Information, Lord Beaverbrook, having definitely decided not to make use of drama or music in propaganda there was no Government organisation to deal with the request.

The small group of actors, writers, and artistes, who ran a theatre in the prison camp of Ruhleben, was regarded as the richest in the camp, because this little group of prisoners were not only busy themselves, but were also able to provide interesting occupations for electricians, carpenters, barbers, painters, costume-makers, etc. They produced a new play every week, and, this fact, says Miss Ashwell, must arouse admiration and appreciation and a realisation that they must have been animated by a spirit of genuine enthusiasm. The greatest successes were such plays as Every Man, Twelfth Night, As You Like It, School for Scandal, She Stoops to Conquer, and Merry Wives of Windsor. Five Gilbert and Sullivan operas were given and modern plays like, Man and Superman, Mile Stones, You Never Can Tell, The Great Adventure, and The Younger Generation.

One of the prisoners stated in a letter: "Of course it is hardly possible for you to believe it, but our stage there was far better equipped than most provincial theatres, and we put on a new piece with new scenry, dresses and everything every week." Anyone can realise the benefit and value of a theatre in a camp where the prisoners were enduring all the misery of both mental and physical starvation and a soul-destroying loss of liberty. It is said that the theatre in the internment camp at Liverpool, near Sydney, has been equally successful, and that there, too, the more serious plays have been most popular.

Miss Ashwell is much concerned over the popular feeling in England against

serious plays. In Berlin, she says, Shakespeare has been played continuously during the war. In Paris two Shakespearian plays have been produced within the last few months, and even the Serbians in their own country before the invasion were able to give many productions of Shakespeare plays. Prisoners of war are able to play Shakespeare in their camps, and behind the lines, in Y.M.C.A. huts, barns and sometimes by the roadside, Shakespeare plays were given to men in the war zone

Why is it, then, that alone in England, the land of his birth, with the exception of the plucky enterprise at the "Old Vic.," it is impossible to see any of his works played? What must be the impression on the men who come from all parts of our great Empire, hoping at the centre of the Empire to see performances not only of Shakespeare, but of many of our great national authors? Does the English nation really only care for revues and trashy forms of entertainment? There is, of course, a very deep division between men who have been through the fiery trial and those who are just stepping into it. The men who have endured since the beginning of the war have a passionate desire for the best that can be given to them, whereas those who come along at the last moment, with the very, very young, to join in the great battle, have yet only a desire for the very light forms of entertainment. If there is any truth in the old saying that a straw shows which way the wind blows, then assuredly the desire of the prisoners of war, the desire of the men in France from first to last, shows that the wind is not blowing, for the mass of the public, in the direction of revues and meaningless entertainment.

There is a section of the community in England which still looks upon the theatre with unbounded suspicion, regards it as a dangerous profession. Another section looks upon it as harmless enough, but as being in no sense necessary to the life of the nation.

The result of this attitude has been that the large majority of theatres in England now produce only the lightest and most trivial entertainments, sometimes actively detrimental to the public mind. But *no* section of the community has as yet taken up the theatre seriously, as a very powerful and direct means of education, of imparting information, of holding up great and high ideals before the mind of the nation. The opportunity for a great use of the theatre at this moment of the national life is more urgent than it has ever been before, and the desire of the people in this direction is well shown in France and Ruhleben.

The Ministry of Information has spent much public money upon the securing of paintings as records of the war, and, no doubt, these have commercial as well as artistic value, and can be safely stored and considered as an asset.

Nationally we are proud and triumphant at having recovered from Germany the secrets of aniline dyes, of the manufacture of optical glass, and of many other products which are among the staple necessities for commercial prosperity. But are we *only* a commercial nation? Do we only care for supremacy in industrialism? Do we believe that there is only one criterion of national success? Are we quite convinced that the only thing that counts is money? Are we prepared to give up our inheritance in literature and to see other countries able and willing to produce our great monuments of literary art, while we sit idly by and allow, by our inertia, the use of these great works to slip out of our national life as we allowed let slip the commercial assets which were ours? Surely in discussing reconstruction some notice should be taken of the powerful medium of the drama!

What plays of note, she asks, have been produced since the war began? At the present moment all places of entertainment are in the hands of commercial dealers who are anxiously seeking to discover what the public wants, so that they may be able to make the most money for themselves out of the public response. She fears commercialism will destroy the theatre, and urges that the theatre should have some protection to keep its great traditions, and be a home for the finest in drama and music. Formerly noblemen took theatres under their wing, and, by subsidising them, made it possible for such works as those of Shakespeare to be produced. In the court theatres of the Continental capitals plays are not given in order to make money, but in order to cultivate the artistic taste of the people. Is it not time, says Miss Ashwell, for the Government of Great Britain to establish some Ministry representing the artistes of the country, so that in the reconstruction of this great nation, we should have some method of fostering the highest and noblest forms of literature and demand their best from the artistes of the country?

RECLAIMING HALF A MILLION ACRES IN HOLLAND.

During the last four years we have become so accustomed to watching a colossal instrument of destruction that we have almost forgotten construction altogether. One of the most ambitious schemes of reclamation ever devised is the draining of the Zuyder Zee in Holland. During the war, of course, the work could not actually commence, but a Commission has been engaged in making the necessary preparations. It is calculated that the scheme will reclaim 523,440 acres, and will not interfere materially with the use of the Zuyder Zee as a means of communication. The stress of war and the task of harbouring hundreds of thousands of refugees has brought Holland to a realisation of her shortage of agricultural lands, and has caused the final decision to be made to drain the Zee, after nearly seventy years of consideration. *The Scientific American* gives a brief account of the engineering project which will take thirty-three years for its completion.

Before anything can be done in the way of converting the bed of the Zuyder Zee into farmlands it will be necessary effectually to cut off the North Sea in order to isolate the inland sea and make it practicable to deal with it without interference from its stormy, masterful kin. It is this phase of the work that presents the biggest engineering problems, because nothing less than a massive dike 18 miles long will suffice to shut in the Zuyder Zee, and, at the same time, be sturdy enough to hold the North Sea at bay when in its angriest moods. Further, to complete the barrier, there will be reared a shorter but no less formidable bulwark across the Amstel Diep, which now flows between the Island of Wieringen and the neighbouring coast of the Province of North Holland. The 18-mile section will span the Zuyder Zee in a northeasterly direction from the eastern end of the Island of Wieringen to appoint on the shore of Friesland near the town of Piaam.

The Dutch, of course, are past masters in the utilisation of brush, sand, and stone in rearing barriers against intrusive waters, and will call upon their skill in this particular undertaking. The first thing will be to create an artificial island midway between Wieringen and Friesland. This will form the key stone of the main sea dam, and from it the dike will be pushed north and south until it closes the gap to the sea.

The dike will be built in two parts, and the first work will be the forming of a submerged dam rising from the sea bed to the level of normal high water. This will have a maximum spread, in section, of 98 feet, and will consist of mattresses of brush, massed with sand, and topped or faced with broken stone. The main body of the dike, which will lie immediately behind and rise above the basic section, will also consist of sand on a foundation of brush and stone. It will be covered with a heavy blanket of clay, and the exposed surfaces will be protected by a basalt rip-rap. Above water, the dike will have a width of quite 230 feet, and back and below the crown of the dam will be constructed a driveway for vehicular traffic and a double-track railroad. The dike proper will entail an expenditure of £2,250,000.

The clay required will be dredged from the bottom of the Zuyder Zee, and be dug from the island of Wieringen during the cutting of the drainage canal, which will provide an outlet for the impounded waters. A goodly number of rivers discharge into the Zuyder Zee, and it is, therefore, necessary to provide for their escape into the North Sea. The canal through which they will flow will have a depth of 30 feet, and a width of 3500 feet, and its opening will be controlled by five groups of sluice-ways. It is estimated that it will take nine years to complete the dike and other necessary works. In the eighth year another dike will be started, and this operation and the draining of the enclosed area will require a further six years. In the fifteenth year from the beginning of the building of the sea dike, the first drained section will be ready for the farmers. The Government reckons that the reclaimed land will bring in an annual rental of £2/12/- an acre—£1,100,000 in all.

The engineers who have examined the bed of the Zuyder Zee are confident that quite 90 per cent. of the bottom is covered with silt and cultivable clay, which means that the arable area of the country will be augmented by nearly 480,000 acres in the four polders. It is further figured that the drained region will accommodate an industrial population of about a quarter of a million. The body of water remaining will have an area of 560 square miles, and being made up entirely of the ebb of the inflowing rivers the water will

be fresh. This change will be an economic blessing, because fresh water is difficult to get in some of the regions now contiguous to the Zuyder Zee, and the altered condition will promote farming and cattle raising in sections where these are now out of the question.

The average depth of the Zuyder Zee is 12.3 feet. and for this reason the building of the confining dikes will not present any notable engineering problems. The disappearance of the large body of water in the Zuyder Zee will save the Dutch great sums of money now spent every year in preserving the existing dikes against erosion and failure. The channels in the Yssel Lake—the name given to the restricted body of water which will supplant the Zuyder Zee—will be more permanent, and it will be comparatively easy to maintain depths sufficient to accommodate larger vessels than those now traversing the Zuyder Zee's treacherous waters.

As matters stand now, rail movement from parts of Friesland to Amsterdam and other commercial centres close to the North Sea coast is very much hampered by reason of the circuitous route that has to be followed in skirting the Zuyder Zee. Many miles of travel will be eliminated when the shorter rail run across the sea dike becomes available. The total cost of the undertaking will call for an expenditure of substantially £20,000,000. This will include an indemnity for the fishermen who now make their livelihood in the Zuyder Zee, and which they can no longer do when the fresh water of Yssel Lake will cause certain kinds of fish to disappear. It is also proposed to move the fishing villages, which will be absorbed in the building of the polders, to points on the North Sea coast where the industry will be established anew.

THE ESTHONIAN REPUBLIC.

Professor A. Piip contributes an informing article to *The Contemporary Review* on Esthonia, and tells of the creation of a republic there, and the trials and tribulations through which the people went during the German occupation. He says:—

The Republic of Esthonia consists of the Northern part of the former Russian Baltic Provinces i.e., the Government of Estland (Esthonia), the northern part of Livonia, the islands of the Moon Sound, and also parts of the Pskov and Petrograd Governments inhabited by Esthonians or Esths. Esthonia is a country of about 47,500 square kilometres, with a population of 1,500,000, comprising 90 per cent. Esthonians, the remaining 10 per cent. consisting of Russians, Germans, Swedes, Letts, Jews, and emigrated Lithuanian and Polish workers. It is to be remarked that the German population in Esthonia is notable only by its paucity. According to the last calculation, there were but 2.4 per cent., which consisted of some hundred baronial families and a small number of bourgeoisie in the towns. *There is no German peasantry in Esthonia.* The Russian population exceeds the German. Other nationalities are very sparsely represented, so that in speaking of Estonia we must consider it to consist of the Esths, and of the Letts, speaking of the south of the Baltic provinces.

There is a large Esthonian colony in the province of Petrograd, and the districts of Narwa and Yamburg in that province are now attached to the new Republic. The Baltic nobility appear always to have received the energetic support of the Tsar's Government, and the history of Esthonia is marked by an insistent struggle against the ancient organisation of self-government which was entirely in the hands of these Baltic barons. It was not until the Russian revolution that the Esthonians were able to secure their liberty. A National Council or Diet was established on April 12th, 1917, and, in July, the members of this body were duly elected by universal suffrage and proportional electoral law. The first meeting of the Council took place at Reval on July 14th, 1917, and a Government was duly established which took charge of all affairs of the former administration, the nobility duly surrendering their self-government appointments. The idea in the minds of the Esthonians was to become a State in the Russian federation, but when the Russian army collapsed the National Council decided that the Esthonian Republic should be declared a permanent neutral country. To this end international guarantees were to be asked for. The Baltic nobility proposed that the country should accept German protection against the Bolsheviks, but the United Assembly unanimously adopted the following resolution:—

That all the political parties of Esthonia affirm that the Esthonian people in its entirety is opposed to the occupation of Esthonia by German troops, and secs in such occupation a most cruel violation of its national sovereign rights. At the same time the whole nation wishes that all foreign troops be at once removed from Esthonian territory.

In spite of this, the nobility drew up petitions to the German Government, requesting military intervention. The invitation of the Baltic nobility was promptly complied with, and Esthonia was occupied by German troops. Although they were only there as a policing force, they refused to recognise the National Council and the Provisional Government of Esthonia, they dissolved the democratic town councils, and appointed committees composed of Germans, they insisted on the teaching of the German language in the schools, and prohibited the use of the Esthonian and Russian languages altogether; they arrested and shot various politicians and others, and generally went on the principle that "might is right." The Esthonians have nothing in common politically with Germany. They hate the Germans for national and social reasons, and the Russians on political grounds. The Esthonian National Council sent the following request to the British Government:—

(1) To recognise the independence of the Democratic Republic of Esthonia within her ethnographical frontiers, including the Isles of the Moon Sound; (2) to recognise the Provisional Government authorised by the Esthonian National Council or Diet as the only legal power of Esthonia; and (3) to grant to Esthonia the right to participate in the General Peace Conference, so as to be able to defend her interests and introduce the question of Esthonian perpetual neutrality and its international guarantees.

To this Mr. Balfour replied:—

His Majesty's Government greet with sympathy the aspirations of the Esthonian people, and are glad to reaffirm their readiness to grant provisional recognition to the Esthonian National Council as a *de facto* independent body, until the Peace Conference, when the future status of Esthonia ought to be settled as far as possible in accordance with the wishes of the population. It would obviously be impossible for His Majesty's Government at the present time to guarantee to Esthonia the right to participate at the Peace Conference, but at any such Conference His Majesty's Government will do their utmost to secure that the above principle is applied to Esthonia.

The French and Italian Governments answered in similar vein. Presumably, therefore, we may take it for granted that an Esthonian Republic will appear on the shores of the Baltic. The Esthonians wish the neutrality of the new Republic to be guaranteed, so that it may become a free-trade country, with free harbours and free access for the Western Allies to trade with Russia. Professor Piip emphasises the fact that practically all the trade of Russia proper will flow through the Baltic ports, owing to Ukrainia cutting off access to the Black Sea, and because of the remoteness of the ice-free ports on the Arctic.

To summarise the case for Esthonia. Esthonia must be free from German domination, to maintain the freedom of the Baltic Sea. To the Esthonian people must be granted the full right of self-determination, and therefore Esthonian independense, proclaimed by their democratic representative body and reaffirmed by the cry of the people, must be recognised by the Western Allies. Esthonian freedom is essential for Great Britain and the other Allies for international trade, untrammelled by German interference. Esthonia looks therefore to the Great Allied Powers to accept her cause as their own, and to utilise their influence to liberate her from the tyrannic heel of German oppression.

IN TROUBLED FINLAND.

We have heard very little about what went on in Finland after the Bolsheviks captured the Government at Petrograd, nor do we know much of what is going on there at the present moment. Frederick M. Corse, an American who has lived in Russia for many years, contributes an article to *The World's Work*, telling of his adventures in escaping from Petrograd to Sweden through Finland early this year. The foreign colony at Petrograd hung on in the city under the Bolshevik regime until the near approach of the Germans threatened them with capture, and then they fled, some through Finland, some through Siberia, to escape enemy internment camps. Neither route was alluring. To go by Siberia meant a journey of more than five thousand miles on a railroad whose trains were commandeered by hordes from Russia's disbanded armies, undisciplined, uncontrolled, but armed and autocratic. To go by way of Finland meant to enter a country which was torn by bitter, implacable, civil war. Of the American colony some went via Siberia, others via Finland, and it is safe to say that not one who chose either of these two routes, but wished fervently and often that he had

gone the other way. After great difficulties Mr. Corse and his party got away from Petrograd and ultimately reached Helsingfors.

And it was at this frontier station that we began the first of a long, long series of meetings with the "Red Guards." Dressed in the every-day clothes of workmen, their only distinguishing mark being a bit of red ribbon tied around the inevitable rifle, a sleeve, or a hat, and occasionally around all three, squads of these men boarded the train at every stop, demanding to see the papers of all passengers. Most of them were ignorant of passport usage, some of them could not even read. But they had the authority and they used it. They all made a show of examining papers, particularly the seal. If this was impressively big and official-looking, the papers were usually approved.

Petrograd had been a hungry city; Helsingfors proved to be a starving one. Nowhere else in the world had Mr. Corse ever encountered such expensive living. Eggs cost 2/- each; a pound of honey cost 32/-.

The day after our arrival, I went to see the Chief-of-Staff of the "Red Guards." His headquarters was in that imposing piece of architecture, the Senate House. My credentials got me by the numerous sentries. The Chief-of-Staff, I found, speaks good English. His name is Arthur Wesley. He had lived for twelve years in Seattle, where he was a leader of the I. W. W. Prime Minister Sirola, whom Wesley called in for consultation, also speaks English. He, too, had lived in America, for several years in Illinois, where he busied himself organising coal strikes. Later we met many Finns who had been in America.

Finally, the party decided to go over the frozen ice to the Aland Islands and thence to Sweden, but the rumour that the Germans were on the eve of occupying these islands sent them back once more to Helsingfors. Three special trains had been sent from Petrograd containing the members of the various Embassies who were fleeing the city. These lived on the trains, packed four in a stateroom, for five weeks, just behind the lines of the Red Guards in the north. When the White Guards advanced southwards the trains were backed southwards also. Ultimately the diplomats gave up all hope of getting through to Sweden by rail, and returned to Russia, some of them accompanying the American Ambassador in his forced wanderings to Archangel, Kandalaksha and Kola. Mr. Corse finally managed to get permission from the Red Guards to cross their lines, providing the White Guards would agree to receive them on the other side. The fighting between these two sections of Finns was more bitter and relentless than between the soldiers of the different nationalities then at war. Ultimately, accompanied by a brave Finnish girl, Captain Crosley, the Naval Attache at the American Embassy at Petrograd, went beyond the lines of the Red Guards, and was met by officers of the Whites, who agreed to call a truce until eight o'clock, so that the whole party of Americans could cross the lines. After considerable delay the Americans and their luggage in sledges went out into No Man's Land, covered with ice, and when midway between the lines, they were left to be collected by the White Guards.

It could easily be seen that the drivers of the sleighs had no confidence in the "Whites." They were very nervous. One could scarcely gets one's things out of a sleigh before the driver would have wheeled his horse and started back at a trot for the shelter of the rocks. When everything was unloaded, the "Red" commander solemnly shook hands all around, and then slowly returned to his own people. It was his demonstration of noblesse oblige.

The White Guards were exceedingly obliging, and quartered the party in farmhouses for the night. As they travelled through "White" Finland, however, they found a strong pro-German atmosphere, and the farther north they went the more pronounced this was, finally showing itself in open rudeness and hostility. A month after entering Finland from Petrograd they crossed into neutral Sweden, in the midst of a driving blizzard.

Q.—Was the present Governor of New South Wales at one time the Mayor of Colombo, in Ceylon?

A.—Sir Walter Davidson, who came to New South Wales from Newfoundland, where he had been Governor since 1913, was the son of the late James Davidson, of Kallyleagh, Co. Down, Ireland. After he left Cambridge he entered the Ceylon Civil Service, and became chairman of the municipal council and mayor of Colombo, in April, 1898. He was the Commissioner for Ceylon at the Paris Exhibition of 1900, and became Colonial Secretary of Administration in the Transvaal in 1902. He was Governor of the Seychelles Islands for eight years, from 1904 to 1912.

CATECHISM ON CURRENT EVENTS—LXXXIII.

Since August, 1914, 2258 questions have been asked and answered in this section.

Q.—Is it correct that Germany demanded an indemnity of £2,000,000,000 from Russia?

A.—No. the amount asked for was £300,000,000. The payments were to be made as follow:—£75,000,000 in gold and rouble notes before the end of 1918; £50,000,000 in raw materials by March, 1920, and £125,000,000 was to be covered by the issue of a Russian 6 per cent. security in Germany. The balance of £50,000,000 was not provided for, but it was understood that it would be taken over by Finland and Ukrainia.

Q.—Was Spain compelled to pay an indemnity to America after the Spanish-American War?

A.—No; Spain was not forced to pay an indemnity at all. In fact, the United States, although its forces had captured Porto Rico, Goam and the Philippines, agreed to give Spain £4,000,000 for these territories, and further agreed to satisfy the claims of American citizens against Spain.

Q.—How is it going to benefit the Dominions if Great Britain adopts a policy of preference?

A.—It is hardly going to benefit them at all, because even the most out-and-out Protectionists at home have given definite assurances that under no circumstances would they agree to put customs duties on food products or raw materials. They only propose to tax manufactured articles. Therefore wool, wheat, tin, zinc, copper, meat, fruit and the like would continue to enter the United Kingdom duty free. Only if the Dominions began to manufacture articles and send them home would they obtain any preferential treatment whatever. As the high working costs here make it practically impossible for us to compete in the open market in manufactured articles, it is perfectly obvious that the amount of preference Great Britain could grant would benefit us hardly at all, even in this branch of production. The cold fact is that, whilst there is a great deal of talk about giving the Dominions preferential treatment it is really meaningless, for under no circumstances whatever would British statesmen agree to tax the food of the people or the raw material needed for the British factories. Preference is a useful catchword which, in the case of the Dominions, means nothing.

Q.—What is the meaning of the word Soviet?

A.—Soviet is the Russian word for council, and is pronounced as we would pronounce Soviette, Bolsheviki originally was the name given to the more extreme Social Democrats, men who believed that for successful revolution it was necessary to educate the wage-earning classes. The other wing of the Socialist party was known as the Social Revolutionists, who demanded a more active programme. They were divided into the Maximalists and Minimalists, the Social Democrats being divided into Bolsheviks and Melsheviks. The Maximalists united with the Bolsheviks, and the other wings of the two parties have followed them pretty closely, although they still contend that the proper method to adopt was to bring about reforms gradually, not to go in for wholesale revolutionary methods. Most of the anarchists are to be found in the ranks of the Bolsheviks.

Q.—Is murder the sole object of the Bolsheviki?

A.—No, it certainly is no more their object than it was the object of the revolutionists in France at the close of the eighteenth century. In both cases the mass of the people, ground down by a ruthless autocracy, rebelled against their oppressors, and inevitably those who had formerly lorded it over them suffered severely. The Bolsheviki have not yet gone to anything like the lengths of the French revolutionaries, who carried on wholesale executions. The complete overturn of the system of government which had obtained in Russia for centuries by an inarticulate and largely illiterate people was bound to be accompanied by excesses and the utter disorganisation of the whole country. Even if the Bolsheviki had encountered no opposition at all industry would have been crippled, murder would have been done, the railways, tram services and other public utilities would have been utterly disorganised. For the first thing the Bolsheviki

did was to discharge all those who filled any positions under the Tsarist regime. But in time matters would have readjusted themselves, and order would have returned to the land. Strong opposition has been manifested, however, to the Bolshiviki, and faction fights are taking place all over Russia. Until one side or the other wins in the present struggle there is little hope of order being again established in Russia.

Q.—Could you tell me what is the political programme of the Czecho-Slovaks?

A.—The programme of the Czecho-Slovaks in Russia was in the first place to escape from Russia *via* Vladivostock, but when their passage was opposed by the Bolsheviki the anti-Bolshevik elements in the country rallied to their aid, and thus the term Czecho-Slovaks as applied to the forces operating in Russia actually included troops which had never come from Bohemia or Moravia. The main object of the Czecho-Slovaks undoubtedly continued to be to get out of Russia, but the other forces which flocked to their standards compelled them to interfere in the internal affairs of the country in a way they would never have done themselves if let alone. The aims of the Czecho-Slovaks in Austria are purely national. They seek to set up an independent state or republic, consisting of most of Bohemia and Moravia. They are violently opposed to the Germans who dwell amongst them in the former state, and to the Hungarians, whose treatment of the Slovaks has been far worse than was that of the Austrians. The claim of the Czecho-Slovaks to Silesia is hardly justified on ethnological grounds, and is certain to involve them in serious trouble with the Germans and the Poles. The union of the Czechs with the Slovaks makes them a powerful force in Northern Austria, but it is pretty certain that if the alliance continues the Slovaks will speedily dominate the Bohemians.

Q.—Is the Y.M.C.A. at present working in France a sectarian association?

A.—The Y.M.C.A. is undenominational, and its members belong to all sects. It has done splendid work, not only just behind the fighting front, but also in all the camps of Allied soldiers at home and abroad. It has further exceedingly important work to do in connection with the demobilisation of the troops, and it is for that purpose that all the branches in the different countries are now endeavouring to raise funds.

Q.—Could you tell me the exact proportion of Roman Catholics who enlisted to the numbers available?

A.—The enlistments of the different denominations are as follow:

Denomination.	Approximate Number of Males 15 and over in 1914.	Number of Soldiers Embarked.	Percentage of Total Embarkations.	Percentage of Males to Total Male Population.	Percentage of Embarkations to Number of Males.
Ch. of England—	765,360	163,081	50.5	42.5	21.3
Roman Catholic—	401,400	60,503	18.7	22.3	15.1
Presbyterian—	239,220	47,850	14.8	13.3	20.0
Meth., Baptist, Con., and Ind.—	269,100	44,230	13.7	14.9	16.4
Hebrew—	8,280	1,061	.3	.4	12.8
No religion—	8,640	184	.05	.4	2.1
Others—	108,000	6,197	1.9	6.0	5.7
	1,800,000	323,106			

From this it will be seen that although one soldier out of every five sent to Europe from Australia was a Roman Catholic, had the same proportion volunteered as did Methodists, Baptists, Congregationalists and Independents, another 1.3 per cent., viz., 5218, would have gone to the front. Had the Methodists, etc., volunteered in the same proportion as the Presbyterians, 3.6 per cent. more of them—viz., 9687—would have joined the colours than actually did.

Q.—Who invented the phonograph?

A.—It is difficult to say who actually produced the first machine that could talk. As in the case of the telephone, the telegraph, wireless telegraphy, and the like, many men were working along certain lines of research, and each had something to do with the final discovery. In most cases, too, the man who actually made the discovery is not the man whose name is associated in the public mind with the particular machine or instrument now used. Marconi is usually regarded as the discoverer of wireless telegraphy, but actually this was found out by Professor D. E. Hughes in 1880. Edison is generally regarded as the originator of the phonograph, but actually what Edison discovered was the method of translating the records made by

sounds back into sounds once more. His first phonograph was invented in 1877, and tinfoil was used as the record medium. Professor Alexander Bell used wax later on, and Emil Berliner conceived the idea of engraving on a flat plate instead of on a cylinder. His invention made possible the gramophone of to-day. It is credibly asserted that a certain Philip Reis, an inhabitant of Gelenhausen, in Prussia, made a gramophone out of cigar boxes which actually reproduced the human voice. He gave a little exhibition of his crude instrument, singing a German song into it, which it duly gave forth again. He reported his discovery to Berlin, but no notice whatever was taken of him. Long after, when dying of consumption, by the intervention of Graham Bell, a son of the Alexander Bell who had much to do with the early development of the phonograph, Philip Reis obtained a pension from the Prussian Government. He was the son of a baker, who in opposition to his father's wishes, devoted his life to scientific research.

Q.—Who discovered the X-rays and the telephone?

A.—The X-Rays were discovered by an Austrian, Professor Roentgen, in 1895. Helmholtz and many others carried out research work, which made possible the telephone invented by Alexander Graham Bell. Philip Reis, by the way, in 1861 made a noteworthy attempt to transmit the human voice over wires, using the "make-and-break" method. The telegraph was also the result of many researches by eminent men, amongst others Sir Humphrey Davey, Oersted, La Place, Ampère and Schilling. The latter, indeed, may be called the father of modern telegraphy. In 1838 an invention of Gauss, improved by Steinheil, was exhibited to the Göttingen Academy, where it was used successfully in the transmission of messages. Two years before that Sir Charles Wheatstone and Sir Charles Cooke had evolved a telegraphic apparatus which transmitted messages, but required six wires to do so. It was not until Samuel V. Morse, an American, devised the well-known system which bears his name, that modern telegraphy as we know it to-day became possible. He did this in 1836. For a long time the maximum number of words which could be sent a minute was about thirty, but recent improvements have made it possible to send up to 600 words per minute in multiplex working. As many as six messages may be sent in simultaneous progress on one line.

Q.—Could you tell me the number of men sent from Australia to South Africa during the Boer war?

A.—In those days, before Federation, the States sent their own contingents. The numbers were as follow:—

	Officers.	Men.
New South Wales	305	5,960
Victoria	248	3,393
Queensland	139	2,713
South Australia	85	1,439
West Australia	62	1,167
Tasmania	37	821
Total	876	15,502

Quite a number of these contingents reached South Africa early in 1902, by which time the fighting was practically over. The particulars of these troops are as follow:—

	Officers.	Men.
New South Wales	85	1,684
Victoria	205	2,044
Queensland	34	704
South Australia	20	463
West Australia	11	296
Tasmania	13	291
Total	368	5,482

Therefore, the Australian troops who actually participated in the war numbered about 10,000. New Zealand sent 287 officers and 6129 men to South Africa, about half of these reaching the country early in 1902. Canada sent 289 officers and 5762 men. In this case also half of the men reached South Africa in 1902. India and Ceylon together sent 26 officers and 509 men. The grand total of colonial contingents was: — Officers, 1478; Men, 27,902.

Q.—What was the total number of the British troops engaged in the South African war?

A.—The total number of soldiers sent to South Africa was 450,000. The casualties amongst them were:—

Killed	5,774
Wounded	22,829
Died of sickness (over)	20,000

The number of Boers in the field has been estimated to be 100,000. Their casualties were comparatively light—4000. Over 20,000 Boer women and children died in the concentration camps established by Lord Kitchener, when he decided to lay waste the country.

Q.—Is it a fact that plans were made for the invasion of Belgium by the British Army long before the present war broke out?

A.—It is the business of General Staffs to prepare for possible eventualities, and there is no doubt that plans were made for

the despatch of British troops to Belgium long before the late struggle began. The Belgian authorities relied on the ability of the British to throw a large army into the country very quickly, and their constant question when being driven back by the Germans was, "When will the English be here?" As a matter of fact the first British force was not able to reach the Continent until August 16th, four days before the Germans entered Brussels, and Belgium had been practically overrun before the small British army at that time available became actively engaged with the enemy.

Q.—Is the re-annexation of Alsace-Lorraine by France not a violation of President Wilson's demand for self-determination?

A.—What President Wilson said was that the wrong done to France in 1871 concerning Alsace-Lorraine had to be righted. He did not definitely say how. At the same time the United States and, amongst the Allies, Great Britain especially, are committed to the policy of self-determination. That being so, it will be almost impossible for France to refuse a request on the part of the inhabitants of the provinces to decide their own future.

Q.—Is it true that the British Government anticipated disaster after the German drive to Amiens in April?

A.—The Attorney-General, Sir F. E. Smith, stated in a speech at Liverpool on Thursday, December 5th, that it was now possible to reveal the fact that during the dark days in April all preparations had been made to carry back to the British Isles the scattered remains of the British forces if the Germans had succeeded in driving a wedge between the British and the French armies. If the British army had been crushed Mr. Lloyd George had determined to fight on with the British and the United States warships while a single vessel flew the British flag.

Q.—Is it true that there were secret treaties between the Allies by which they were individually to make annexations and participate in indemnities?

A.—What are known as the Secret Treaties were published by the Bolshevik Government several months ago, and these have been reprinted in British journals. Only a couple of them were formal treaties. The others were understandings arrived at between the representatives of the different Allied Powers. One between Russia and France dealt with the question of making the Rhine a permanent frontier of Germany. Another between Russia, France and England, provided for the partition of Asia Minor into spheres of influence and the acquisition of Constantinople by Russia. A definite treaty between England, France and Italy, provided for the cession of certain Austrian and Albanian territories to Italy and for Italian expansion in Africa. A definite treaty between Roumania and the Allies provided for the annexation of Transylvania, and also of what is known as the Banat. Apparently there was no mention of indemnities in any of these treaties.

Q.—Is it likely that Italy will annex all the Tyrol south of the Brenner Pass, including Botzen, Meran, Brixen, and other purely German towns?

A.—According to the terms of the Armistice Italian troops are to ocupy the Tyrol up to the Brenner Pass, but it is extremely unlikely that permanent annexation of purely German-speaking communities will be permitted by the Peace Conference.

Q.—How long will it be before Germans or any other people of enemy descent are allowed, if they so desire, to leave Australia?

A.—That is a matter in which the Australian Government will certainly be guided by the Imperial authorities. The general idea is that no passports will be granted to naturalised Germans until after Peace has been signed, although Australians of German descent should be able to obtain permission to leave the country before then. As to whether the Federal Government will cancel naturalisation certificates of enemy aliens naturalised after the outbreak of the war, that also is a matter in which the example of the Imperial Government will be followed.

Q.—Could you give me the figures showing the respective quantities of mutton and beef supplied to Great Britain by New Zealand and Australia respectively in the year 1913?

A.—In 1913 New Zealand exported 5,672,343 carcases of frozen mutton and lamb to the United Kingdom. In that year the number of carcases exported from Australia was 4,442,201, being the largest number ever exported from the Commonwealth. In the following year, 1914, the New Zealand exports had increased to 6,180,924 carcases, and the Australian fell to 3,721,099 carcases. The total export of beef from New Zealand in 1913 was 260,880 cwts. From the Commonwealth it was 1,954,630 cwts. Practically the entire exportable surplus in both cases went to Great Britain.

LOOSE AND FAST.*

In a style that is at times crude, often mediocre, and always more or less unintentionally reticent, Mr. Watson leads us into strange ways and foreign seas. The author has two theses to advance, out of solitude and storm. One is that there is no bludgeoning too hard for life so long as the individual soul is strong enough to shake away all the old evaluations. The other is that those natures finally dominate that have the strongest foundation of elemental, of primitive, desire to stand upon when the props of civilisation and the conserving influence of the herd are lost to them.

There are two islands lying thirty miles apart somewhere in the seas about New Ireland. Into this realm the author drops us with his characters as he might into an unoccupied building, and leaves us. On one island is the government hospital for the men from among the savage subjects on the mainland; here Sherwin, the yeoman Englishman, has charge; with his half-tamed black to serve his wants. On the other island the hospital for women, the old doctor, the nurses, the brilliant young doctor and scientist, Hicksey. And then Nurse Desmond, who has a past scored to her credit. And gradually the love between her and Dr. Hicksey. And at length the struggle between these two; between them and Sherwin; among the three; and between Sherwin and the woman.

The originality and the warm promise of the book lies, I think, in a kind of strange, poetic and persistent seriousness that runs throughout, a something solemn-eyed and seemingly inefficient. Say, for example, the writer has in the back of his mind the slow tedium of this island, the stifling heat, the corroding thoughts that once ran high. These are fearsome places in a book. Readers have an eye out for boredom; ambitious writers are shy of it. But it is one of the traits of greatness to risk a sublime tedium; to believe in the validity of the matter spread out to the bounds of the inspiration. Happily Mr. Watson never bores us. He puts us through stillness, through grayness, suspense, platitude, glowing intensities. Meanwhile his material contrives perpetually to seem bigger than his saying of it.

And as the book progresses we are aware of the ebb of consideration, of conventional regard, of complexity. There is more and more power, more pressure. The world is less moral, more primal. The mind tries to recognise forces, but not to order them. More and more by the psychology of their own natures in their isolation and in the end completely by the act of killing, are the central characters cut off from civilisation. The reader becomes non-moral. He regards these people and their actions on the basis of the elemental in them, and believes that henceforth their chance for new expression depends alone on the unflinching and naked vitality in them.

To turn from this book to Mr. Fuller's is to face suddenly a casual wall with an etching hung upon it.

The first impression is of the writer's being afraid of boring one. This fear of boredom is a trait among American writers especially. But why should an author think that anything in his judgment worth thinking and saying should be unable to interest us? It may be defended as a sense of humour on the writer's part, not to take himself too seriously. But it is more like calling on an

*"Where Bonds Are Loosed," by E. L. Grant Watson. New York: Alfred Knopf.
"On the Stairs," by Henry B. Fuller. Boston: The Houghton Mifflin Co.

eminent man who sits in the midst of a beautiful old room, of used books and pictures, and tells anecdotes, jokes and limericks. The time seems wasted; barkeeps know better stories and reporters better limericks. One wants men to take themselves as gaily as they choose, but seriously, and to leave one's taste and judgment to decide how far to agree with them in the matter. These concessions, this skittishness, belong to lesser men; the rest—the Molieres and Jane Austens as well as the grand serious—take their full strides.

Mr. Fuller is neither cheap nor anecdotal, but he fears to drag. He does himself an injustice by such sketchiness at times; and needs to give the play and insight of his mind less of this self-conscious clipping. But looked at more and more, his work gains on one by its lines. It is sharply observed, trim, above all open. The two men in the middle western town start, one at the top, one at the bottom, of social life. The first is delicately vague, passionless, proud, no splendid faults, no ardent virtue, the kind of neutral soul that Dante shut out from hell and over whom he set the damned as glorious. The other man is full of unheroic vitality, not unkind, healthily selfish, honest in the big business sense, immediate, enthusiastic and obvious. Money, birth, the growth of the city, wives, children, travel, enterprise, culture and the war are all included in the picture. The time comes when the two men meet at the middle of the stair, one going up, the other coming down. And one finally reaches the bottom, the other the top. Neither is a place of any great or intense significance; it implies after all only a descent into boarding houses and more or less obscurity on one hand and a North Shore palace and County Club and bank on the other; the story remains true to its material.

The tone of the whole picture is admirably kept. We have here an entire social world seen steadily, sometimes satirically, never lovingly, but never unkindly, seen from a vantage point of a sort of tidy-heartedness and middle class common sense. A common sense that is shrewd, informed, rather provincially sane, shy of passion and yet human; like the face of some business man seen in our cities now and then, that looks sharp and amiable at once, starved and a little wistful, appeased and confident.

Beyond both the daylight and drypoint of such a book, the other book seems a little mad, seems young and noble and poetic. It seems to send back into our nearer lives—even to the life led as in the other book—a sense of the power and the forces in us. And it becomes strangely closer to us, in spite of its far-off seas and isolation, than all the delightful crackle and sanity of Mr. Fuller's work. S.Y.

THE LITERARY REVIVAL IN IRELAND.*

That which will surprise most readers of this volume is the amount of critical thought that has guided the so-calied revival. The literary movement in Ireland has been regarded as an imaginative flare-up. But Ernest Boyd, by showing us the thought of such pioneers as Standish O'Grady, A.E., John Eglinton, lets us see that much critical intelligence went to prepare the way. A.E., for instance, writing at an early stage of the movement, suggested that the function of Irish literature would be "to create a national ideal in Ireland, or rather to let that spirit incarnate fully which began among the ancient people, which has haunted the hearts and whispered a dim revelation of itself through the lips of bards and peasant story tellers." He would have had the modern poets take a special interest in the heroic tales. John Eglinton, on the other hand, urged that what would come out of the modern treatment of the heroic stories would be, not a national literature, but mere belles-lettres. National literature he defined as "the outcome and expression of a strong interest in life itself," whereas, "belles-lettres seek subjects outside experience." "It is from the poet's soul," he urged, "that the poetic light is cast upon the world and not from the world upon the poet's soul . . . the poem that

*"Appreciations and Depreciations, Irish Literary Studies, by Ernest A. Boyd. John Lane.

is to justify the modern world must, in the first place, be a man." It must be a song of victory, of the virtue of man, which will restore to him a sense of his own identity and his own greatness. Indeed, more critical thought than Mr. Boyd can let us see went to the shaping of the new Irish literature. There is no study of Yeats in Appreciations and Depreciations. Yet Yeats was from the first as much the critic as he was the poet of the movement.

It is not Mr. Boyd's intention to give us a series of studies of the pioneers of the modern literary movement in Ireland. What he gives us is studies of the work and personalities of six outstanding Irishmen of letters—A.E., John Eglinton, Lord Dunsany, Standish O'Grady, Bernard Shaw, Edward Dowden. And the chief value of the volume is that it is by a critic who is really an Irish critic—not merely a critical intelligence taking note of certain work done in Ireland. Ernest Boyd has a conception of a distinct Irish mentality and for him there exists the problem of creating an Irish culture. This conception permits him to show a success or a failure that would not be apparent to an outside critic. More studies have been written upon Bernard Shaw than upon any other writer living. Yet Mr. Boyd, by seeing his intellectual history as that of an Irish Protestant, is able to disclose a real and unnoticed factor in Shaw's work.

His escape to London lifted Shaw not only out of the family environment, but also out of the atmosphere of political and religious concentration, which made all but a few Irishmen incapable of disinterested thinking. Instead of having to bring the dogmas of the factions to the test of every idea, he was permitted by freer conditions to indulge in the natural interplay of ideas, irrespective of their value to the cause of autonomy or dependence. Yet so strong was the Protestant imprint that Shaw did not fail to conform to type in handling the problems which engaged his attention. Being under no necessity of declaring himself for or against England, as would have been necessary in Ireland, he was able to assume the air of impartiality. With the true Irishman's sense of being an alien, he criticised English affairs as a spectator, while the absence of party compulsion allowed him to express himself in terms irreconcilable with orthodox Nationalist criticism. Had he been in Ireland, or had he carried with him the traditional atmosphere, he would not have avoided the inevitable dilemma: either to accept England with all her faults, or to cling to Ireland because of her virtues. In short, as an Irish Protestant, no longer in direct contact with "the enemy," he could utter aloud the thoughts which tradition would have forced him to keep private lest he betray the cause of loyalism to its adversaries.

Mr. Boyd is valuable as a critic of the Irish literary movement, because, knowing the modern literatures of Europe, he can make the proper evaluations. He is destined to be the spokesman of the movement. P.C.

Messrs. Cassell and Co. are issuing most attractive reprints of several of Robert Louis Stevenson's works. Bound in leather and printed on thin paper they slip very handily into the pocket and form ideal gift books. The type is clear and large, too, despite the small size of the volumes. The series which is issued at 5/- in Australia includes:—*Kidnapped, The Black Arrow, Catriona, Treasure Island, The Master of Ballantrae* and *Island Nights' Entertainments.*

Another less pretentious reprint issued by the same firm is W. H. G. Kingston's popular sory, *Peter the Whaler.* It is published at 1/9. Cheap reprints in these strenuous days are usually done on paper no one would have dreamed of using before the war. Cassell's are to be congratulated on being able to give their readers such white paper which makes the printed page easily legible.

James Oliver Curwood proves himself in *The Treasure Hunters* (Cassell 5/-) to be a pleasing writer for boys. Somehow the glamour of the Red Indian never wears off, and though the popularity of Fenimore Cooper wanes, other writers dealing with the red man in different style, make him enthrallingly interesting to the youth of to-day. Of *The Treasure Hunters* we need say no more than that it is in Indian country where they search for gold.

FINANCIAL NOTES.

British Overseas' Banks have a capital exceeding £100,000,000.

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Including Debentures and Preference and Ordinary shares, over £236,000,000 of British capital is invested in Argentine railways.

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Liebig's Extract of Meat Company paid for the year ended March 31st last a dividend at the rate of 20 per cent., free of tax, also a bonus of 5/- per share.

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Of the total Russian debt on the eve of war, 56 per cent. was held in Russia, and 44 per cent. abroad. The 44 per cent. represented in round figures £680,000,000.

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The Council of Foreign Bond Holders in Britain recently received from the agent of the bond holders at Guatemala, a draft for £60,498 for the payment of the coupons on the 4 per cent. External Debt of Guatemala, due 30th December, 1918, and 30th June, 1919.

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Since the Osaka Shosen Kaisha opened a new service to that part of the world, Japan's trade with South America has noticeably developed. From the United States entry into the war her supplies of merchandise to South American States have undergone a great decrease, and, as a result, increased orders have been received in Japan from Brazil, Chile and the Argentine. The demand for Japanese merchandise is particularly large in regard to chemicals.

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The Italian Minister of Finance, in the course of a recent statement with regard to the development of the Institute of National Insurance, of which he is the founder, made the interesting announcement that the total number of persons insured with the institute was double that of the private insurances effected in 40 years, and he added that it could be foreseen that in a few years the National Institute of Insurance would be one of the greatest powers financially, and, at the same time, a very great provident organisation, which was capable of extending abroad the advantages of reinsurance.

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An arrangement was concluded early in September between the Urquijo Bank, the Bank of Barcelona and others forming a syndicate, and the financial delegate from the United States with regard to the granting of a credit to the United States of 75,000,000 pesetas, payable in September. The credit may be raised to a maximum of 250,000,000 pesetas, payable at the rate of 50,000,000 per month. Payment will be made by means of bills on the Spanish banks deposited with the banks of the Federal Reserve system and repayment of the credit will be made in gold at par. The interest will be 6½ per cent.

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There were only 7583 failures in U.S.A. for the first nine months of the current year, a decrease of 24.8 per cent., from the like period a year ago, only about half the number in 1915, which reflected the great shock resulting from the outbreak of the European war, and 26 per cent. fewer than in the year 1912, a very favourable year up to the time of the outbreak of the first Balkan war in the autumn. The 1918 total, however, exceeds that for the first nine months of 1907 by 10 per cent. Only fourteen of the past thirty-six years show fewer failures for nine months than does 1918.

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An interesting table was recently published in a British insurance journal showing the steady appreciation which has taken place in the market value of insurance companies' shares during the present year. From this it appears that the aggregate value of 79 officers has risen from about £93,000,000 in January last to £107,331,000 in August. As compared with the pre-war date of January, 1914, the present ratio of values stands at 118.8 per cent., against 100 per cent., there having been an almost continuous improvement since the lowest level, which was touched in September, 1915, when the ratio fell to 78.7 per cent.

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The Ministry of Finance in Italy recently announced that during the first six months of the financial year 1918-19

For Influenza, Colds, Croup, Catarrh

And OTHER CHEST AND THROAT TROUBLES, Use

HEENZO

REGD NAME FOR HEAN'S ESSENCE

The Great Money-Saving Remedy

Mr. H. A. PARSONS, holder of the World's Motor Cycling Records for 10, 25, 50, 100, and 200 miles, has just reduced the Melbourne to Sydney Motor-Cycle Record by 1 hour 22 min., the journey occupying 20 hours 58 min. The previous record was 22 hours 20 min. Mr. Parsons rode a 7-h.p. Spring Frame Indian and sidecar with passenger, fitted with Barnet Glass Boomerang tyres. He found the road exceptionally heavy and dusty. He tells of the remarkable curative value of HEENZO in the following letter:—

22 Hoddle-street, Abbotsford,
Victoria, May 6th, 1918.

Mr. G. W. Hean, Chemist.

Dear Sir,—Here is another testimonial for your well-known HEENZO (Hean's Essence):—Last winter I had a severe cold, for which HEENZO was recommended. After taking several doses, I found that it relieved my cough considerably, and a continuance of your fine remedy cured the attack.

Last week I was in Sydney making arrangements for my side-car record, when I contracted a severe cold, which worried me very much, and I was afraid I would have to cancel my attempt. Remembering, however, what HEENZO had done for me last year, I obtained another bottle, and, thanks to its remarkable curative qualities, I am now quite all right again. My experience with HEENZO has been such that I can confidently recommend it to all athletes and motor cyclists.

Yours faithfully,
H. A. PARSONS.

Costs 2/-

Each bottle of HEENZO produces a family supply of superior quality mixture. A like quantity of ready-made remedies would cost anything from 12s. to £1. HEENZO costs only 2s., and money cannot buy a better medicine.

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Moral: Use HEENZO, and Make a Big Save. DO IT NOW!

N.B.—If you do not require a family supply of Cough Mixture, ask for HEENZO COUGH DIAMONDS. Price, 1s. per tin.

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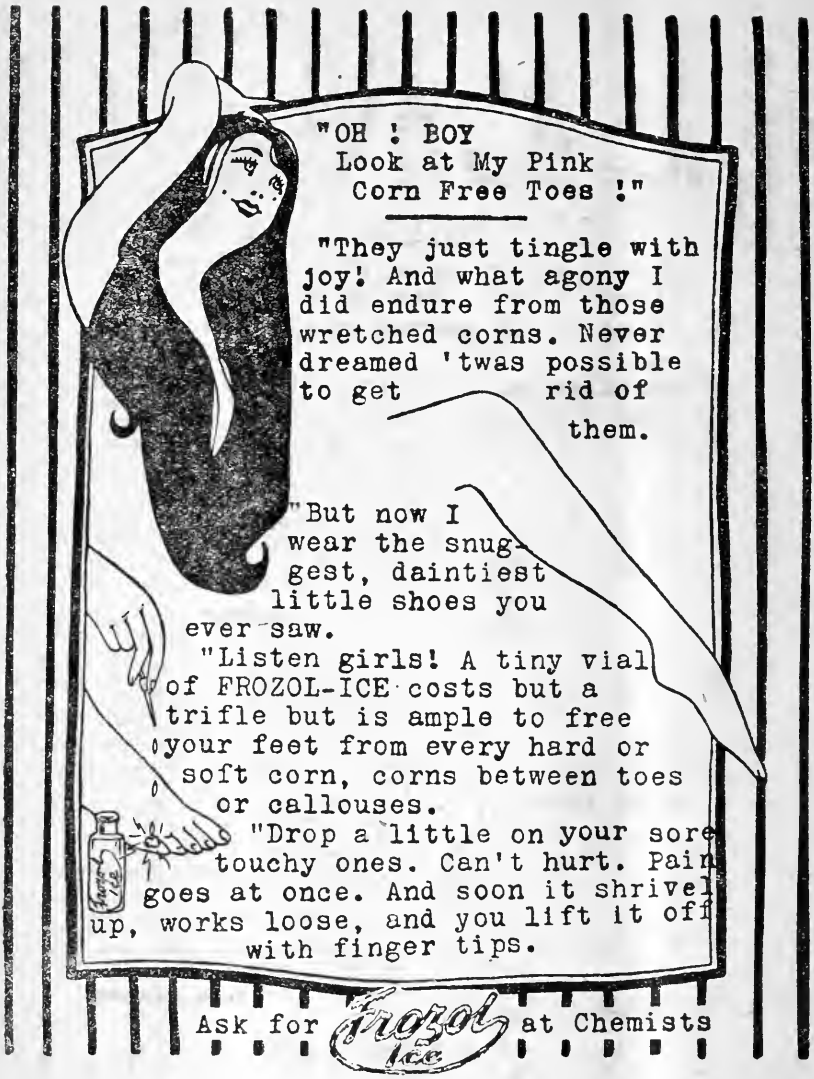
"OH ! BOY
Look at My Pink
Corn Free Toes !"
"They just tingle with joy! And what agony I did endure from those wretched corns. Never dreamed 'twas possible to get rid of them.
"But now I wear the snuggest, daintiest little shoes you ever saw.
"Listen girls! A tiny vial of FROZOL-ICE costs but a trifle but is ample to free your feet from every hard or soft corn, corns between toes or callouses.
"Drop a little on your sore touchy ones. Can't hurt. Pain goes at once. And soon it shrivel up, works loose, and you lift it off with finger tips.
Ask for Frozol Ice at Chemists

the revenue exceeded by 196,000,000 lire (1 lire equals 9½d.) that of the corresponding period last year. The various increases were: — Direct taxation, 66,000,000 lire; State monopolies, 60,500,000 lire; taxes on businesses, 39,000,000 lire; and indirect taxation, 30,500,000 lire. These figures indicate that the revenue from taxation will attain 5,000,000,000 lire per annum.

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The American Farm Loan Board has issued the first consolidated statement of the condition of the twelve Federal Land Banks for the year ended 30th April. The banks have made loans to farmers to the amount of 91,865,586 dollars. Their capital stock has increased from 9,000,000 dollars to 13,594,895 dollars. They have issued farm loan bonds to the amount of 83,750,000 dollars. Their excess of expenses and interest charges over earning is 411,954 dollars, which is almost exactly three per cent. of their capital. The 91,865,586 dollars loans closed include 68,675,561 dollars at 5 per cent., and 23,190,025 dollars at 5½ per cent.

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The Superintendent of the London Central Markets, in his half-yearly report, states that supplies of meat and other produce to the markets during the half-year ended June 30th last were 100,126 tons, as against 148,218 tons in the corresponding period of 1917—a decrease of 48,092 tons, or 32.4 per cent. All commodities dealt with, excepting eggs and sundries, declined in volume—beef, 13,979 tons; mutton, 20,617 tons; pork, 13,295 tons; poultry and game, 1,953 tons; rabbits, 464 tons; butter and cheese, 908 tons—the exceptions, eggs and sundries, showing increases of 977 tons, and 2147 tons respectively. Canada and the United States are the only sources of production showing an increased supply—the increase aggregating 18,456 tons. Supplies from all other sources show decreases as follows:—Britain and Ireland, 41,304 tons; Australasia and Africa, 7,100 tons; South America, 16,336 tons; and other countries, 1,808 tons.

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The Government of India has issued a rule under the Defence of India Act, prohibiting dealing in any legal tender coin above its face value, the value of the sovereign being declared to be fifteen rupees. The Government in recent months has been issuing gold coin, namely, sovereigns and latterly gold mohurs, for the purchase of wheat, with the object of assisting the currency position and reducing the demand for rupees. That object was, however, being frustrated by the withholding from circulation of these coins in expectation of securing a speculative profit, and the intention of the present rule is to make illegal speculative transaction in the currency. Future contracts relating to such transactions will, therefore, be legally unenforceable, and will also expose the parties to them to the penalty prescribed for a breach of the rule. The rule in question follows a similar one recently enacted in Great Britain under the Defence of the Realm Act.

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The report that Japan had agreed to a loan to China of 80 million yen (about £8,000,000) for the purpose of enabling China to carry out a currency reform, has been officially denied. The currency loan, however, will be advanced jointly by the Four Powers Group. Consequently Japan alone is not lending at present to China. The reported Chinese mandate on the currency system (says *The Statist*) simply provides for a convenient means for international trade, as well as for preparing facilities for the future adoption of the gold standard. It takes the form of issuing gold notes by Chinese banks against the gold reserve held in the exchange market, both at home and abroad, and thus enabling traders to operate in foreign exchange by means of those notes. The notes are intended to be made convertible in the future. The Chinese proposal is a tentative experimental measure on a small scale, and is not to be regarded as a definite step in the solution of a problem which has long been pending, and which can only be settled by all the interested parties.

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The modern system of banking in Japan dates from the promulgation of the National Banks Regulations in November, 1872. Banks of every description have since then been created in quick succession; and now the credit establishments for agriculture, industry,

commerce and various other enterprises have been brought into full working order, their actual number being 2135 at the end of June, 1917. These banks are divided by their nature into two classes, namely, those which have been established under the general banking laws, and make it their object to facilitate the general circulation of capital, and those which, having been created under special banking laws, have special objects and functions. The Bank of Japan, the central bank of the country, was established in 1882 as a joint-stock company. Its authorised capital, which was at first 10,000,000 yen (£1,024,275) was increased three times, and now stands at 60,000,000 yen (£6,145,652), of which 37,500,000 yen (£3,841,032) has been paid up.

ESPERANTO NOTES.

"A golden sovereign," said an English public man one day before the war, "is the best Esperanto in the world. It will do anything for you, and take you anywhere." He referred to the better position of capital in the dispute of capital with labour, in which capital can command the services of the best orators, writers and linguists as its interpreters. But the labour man cannot depend on such help. He must rely upon himself and the men of his own class, and thus he must educate himself for the task of speaking to his fellow-workers throughout the world in a tongue which they can all understand. There are few organisations to which an international language is so necessary as the labour movement. Its leading spokesmen travel from country to country, to meet their fellow-workers in other countries; few of them are linguists, and when the occasion comes for the exchange of thought with men from abroad, the services of interpreters have to be enlisted.

The experience of the American labour delegation in Paris has given a striking example of the unsatisfactory situation which an interpreter can create. The London *Daily Telegraph* tells us that the interpreter purposely abstained from translating into English part of the speeches of the French Socialists for fear of shocking the American delegates, and, also, parts of the American delegates' speeches were not translated into French. This kind of thing is intolerable, and the remedy is that labour leaders throughout the world should make Esperanto part of their educational programme. They can show the way by learning the language themselves, and, by asking delegates at international congresses to make the sacrifice of time necessary to learn Esperanto.

Mr. Harrison Hill, the well-known entertainer, relates in *The British Esperantist* that not long ago he received from a senior surgeon in the French army a copy of a thesis which had gained the highest honour from the French medical faculty. A summary in Esperanto was added, and, in order to show what the simplicity and directness of Esperanto can enable a layman to do, Mr. Hill, who is not a medical man, translated this summary into English, taking care not to consult any medical man on the subject. He sent his translation to an eminent English surgeon, Sir Herbert Waterhouse, asking whether the translation was clear. In reply, Sir Herbert wrote: "It is a great testimonial for Esperanto that you should have been able to make an understandable translation of a highly technical medical paper."

The date for the receipt of manuscripts in both sections of the 1918 literary competition of the Melbourne Esperanto Society has been postponed until the 28th February, 1919. As it was found almost impossible to buy the story set for the translation section (*The Snow-Image*, by Nathaniel Hawthorne), a number of copies have been made, and these may be bought at 1/- each from the Society (Box 731, Elizabeth Street, Melbourne), or from Mr. W. L. Edmanson, 156 Lambton Quay, Wellington.

Readers of STEAD'S interested in Esperanto should communicate with the nearest Esperanto group, at any of these addresses: Box 731, Elizabeth Street P.O., Melbourne; "Edna," Clissold Parade, Campsie, Sydney; "Bonvenu," O'Mara Street, Lutwyche, Brisbane; Mr. W. L. Waterman, Torrens Road, Kilkenny, Adelaide; Mr. T. Burt, Stott's College, Perth; Mr. D. Guilbert, 7 Glen Street, Hobart; and Mr. W. L. Edmanson, 156 Lambton Quay, Wellington.

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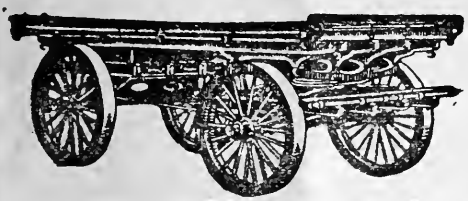

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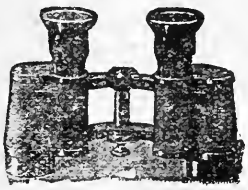

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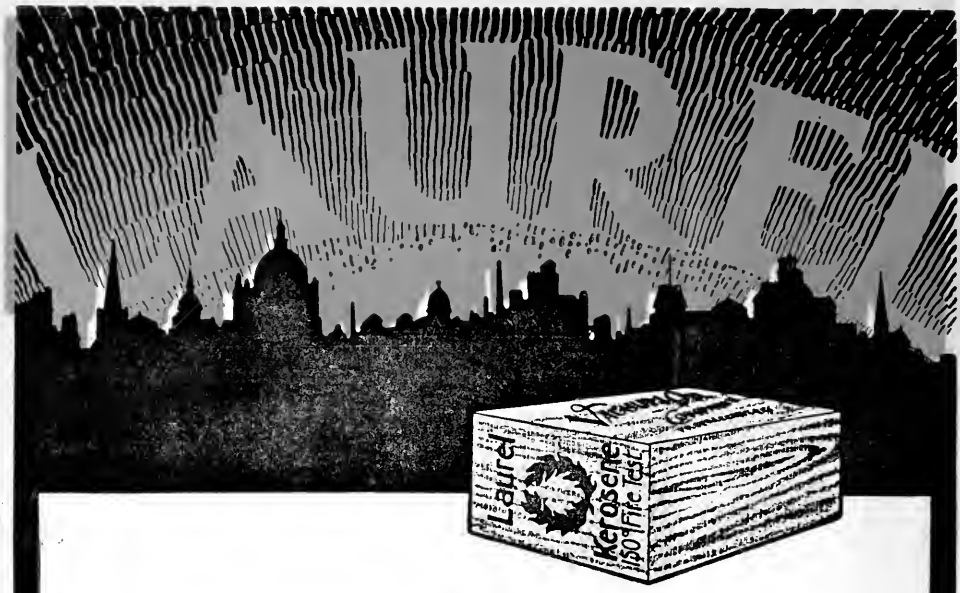

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